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ABSTRACT

THE DAG HAMMARSKJOLD FOUNDATION SPONSORED SEMINARS ON "THE USE OF CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION IN ADULT EDUCATION: MEANS, METHODS, AND POSSIBILITIES" IN APRIL-MAY 1967 AND MAY-JUNE 1968. EACH SEMINAR WAS ABOUT A MONTH IN LENGTH; ON BOTH OCCASIONS THE PARTICIPANTS CAME FROM AFRICAN COUNTRIES AND REPRESENTED MINISTRIES, UNIVERSITIES, AND PARAGOVERNMENTAL OR INTERGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS. THE PARTICIPANTS AT BOTH SEMINARS WROTE PAPERS ON A SUBJECT WITHIN THE FIELD OF CORRESPONDENCE AND/OR ADULT EDUCATION. SOME OF THE PAPERS ARE INCLUDED IN THIS VOLUME; OTHERS ARE TO BE PUBLISHED IN ANOTHER BOOK (MASS EDUCATION: STUDIES IN ADULT EDUCATION AND TEACHING BY CORRESPONDENCE IN SOME DEVELOPING COUNTRIES). MOST OF THE PAPERS IN THIS WORK ARE DEVOTED TO PARTICULAR INSTITUTIONS OR PROGRAMS IN SPECIFIC AFRICAN COUNTRIES. (MF)

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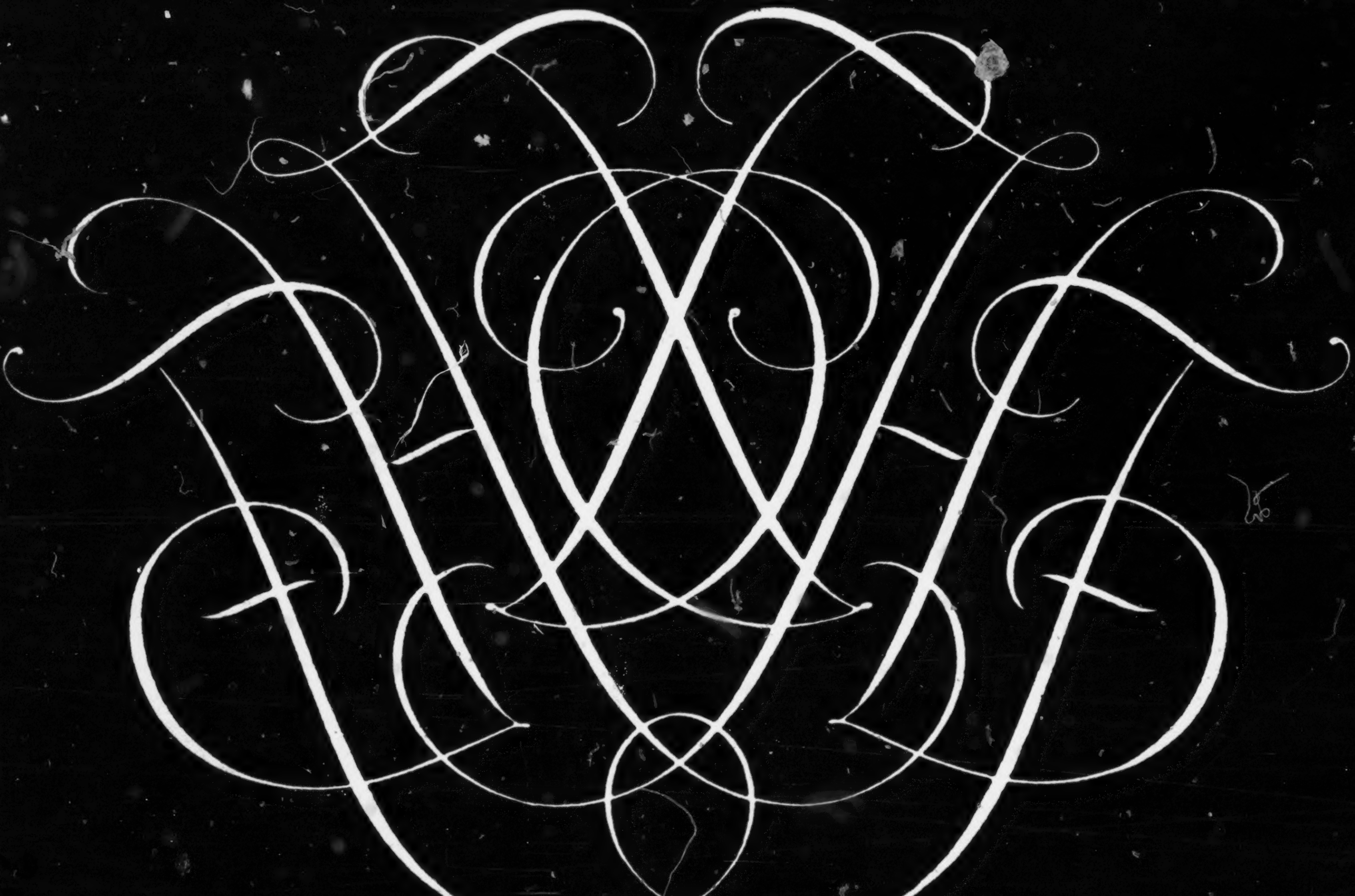

DAG HAMMARSKJOLD FOUNDATION

Studies in Adult Education in Africa

ED035822

STUDIES IN ADULT EDUCATION IN AFRICA

A Selection of the Papers Presented to the Dag Hammarskjöld Seminars in 1967 and 1968 on "The Use of Correspondence Instruction in Adult Education: Means, Methods and Possibilities"

THE DAG HAMMARSKJÖLD FOUNDATION
Uppsala, Sweden
1969

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PREFACE

In 1967 the Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation mounted a seminar on "The Use of Correspondence Instruction in Adult Education: Means, Methods, and Possibilities". This seminar was repeated in 1968. On both occasions the participants came from African countries and represented universities, ministries, and paragovernmental or intergovernmental organizations.

Both seminars were led by a Directorate consisting of Miss Renée Erdos, President of the International Council on Correspondence Education (ICCE), and Head of the School of External Studies, N.S.W. Department of Technical Education, Australia, Mr Roy Prosser, Adviser on Adult Education to the Kenya Government and Dr. Lars-Olof Edström, Educational Adviser, Swedish International Development Authority.

The participants at both seminars wrote papers on a subject within the field of correspondence and/or adult education. These papers were presented and discussed at the seminars. Apart from this, the seminar work was carried on in the form of lectures by the directors of the seminar or by guest lecturers, or through case-studies, discussions, and working study visits.

Some of the seminar lectures and papers will be published in a volume entitled Mass Education: Studies in Adult Education and Teaching by Correspondence in Some Developing Countries, which the Foundation will publish in the spring of 1969. But it was not possible to make available in this volume all the contributions to the seminar. In order to remedy this, the following publication has been prepared. It contains most of the seminar papers not included in the above volume.

The papers are presented in the way that they were originally presented to the seminars and should be read in this light. The authors have not been able to work over them, elaborate on them or check details and references in the way they would have done, if the papers had been entirely prepared either before or after the seminars. Most of the papers were written during the weeks of the seminars. Nevertheless, the Foundation and the seminar directorate feel that comparatively little has been published in this field and that it would be indefensible not to offer interested readers an opportunity of going through most of the seminar papers, many of which contain unique information for the student of adult education development on the African continent.

The aims of this publication are thus modest. It is intended to provide information as a service to all who are interested in adult education or teaching by correspondence, without any claims to be more than a collection of seminar papers. The content and presentation vary from contribution to contribution.

The Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation does not necessarily share the views expressed by the writers of the papers, and each individual author is responsible for the opinions and facts put forward in his contribution.

THE DAG HAMMARSKJÖLD FOUNDATION

Uppsala, November 1968

THE ROLE OF THE UNIVERSITY IN ADULT EDUCATION

by Abebe Ghedai

I. Objectives and scope of adult education

Adult education, in its broadest sense, is concerned with the spread of general, social, vocational and professional knowledge to all members of the adult public. Its specific objectives vary with the need and the particular society it serves. In the highly developed countries the trend or the emphasis seems to be on the liberal enrichment of the adult: "... to maintain an adult population up to the standards of competence in knowledge, wisdom, and skill which society requires; to develop in adults an understanding of the serious problems which interrupt the operations and progress of their co-operative society and prepare them to participate in the solution of those problems; and to provide all adults with the opportunities for their highest possible development in attitudes, understanding, knowledge and quality of the human existence toward the goal of the greater self-fulfilment and realization of each individual human being".1)

In our developing countries the liberal-enrichment approach in adult education is not enough. We have to respond not only to the needs of certain individuals and groups but also to the needs of the country as a whole. Our educational investments must be adapted to our natural needs. If nation-building is our goal, we should not insist on the high standards of the few. As with school education, our adult education should be in line with our particular requirements of development.

Some of the very important ideas that have promoted adult education are the concepts of life-long learning, community or social service and all-round development of the individual in

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1) Adult Education by Gale Jensen, A. A. Liveright, and W. Hallenbeck, Adult Education Assoc, of the USA (1964), p. 7.

an age of growing specialization. Owing to rapid and continuous social, economic and technological changes, formal school education of the conventional type is not enough. Our education should not be confined to the child and the adolescent. Adults, as a very important and productive group in society, should also be provided with all types of education or instruction, to satisfy their increasing and even changing needs for general and professional education. The level of the educational needs of adults ranges from literacy and fundamental education to university post-graduate courses. It embraces all types of formal and informal instruction addressed to adults. Educational work of such magnitude and scope should be carried out by all educational institutions, including universities.

II. University of adult education

Of all the agencies of adult education, public or private, the role of the university, especially in developing countries, is very significant. In such countries state educational departments are mainly concerned with school education. Voluntary educational associations have not yet reached stages where they can play important roles in adult education, as in the Scandinavian countries. Therefore, some adult-education programmes should be pioneered by the universities, until, in due course, they can be handed over to more appropriate organizations.

Traditionally, the university has been concerned with the intellectual cultivation of the few or the professional education of the elite. Knowledge was an esoteric possession of the scholar. The concern for society and its needs was rather limited. In the second half of the 19th century, the university has become less of an ivory tower. Many universities throughout the world, including those in developing countries, have come to recognize their responsibilities to the state or the communities that support them and they have risen to face the challenge. The three important functions of a modern university are:

.../...

(a) The dissemination of knowledge through teaching.

(b) The discovery of knowledge through research and its preservation.

(c) The extension or provision of services to the community beyond its walls.

The last function which modern universities worthy of the name are adopting implies not only the application of new knowledge to current problems of life but also the sharing of its results with the community at large. Many universities have opened their doors to their respective communities and have extended their class-rooms to the public through their extra-mural or extension departments. This new function is better expressed by Ingeborg Lycke in her book on adult education in Norway:

> ... The task is not only to bring the scientist out of his laboratory, but also to bring the public into the laboratory; to show them the methods used and to teach them why they are used - or perhaps to teach them what and how much of the results they should believe.2)

In developing countries the social, economic and educational problems are of great magnitude. The disparity between the uneducated mass, on the one hand, and the handful of educated elite, on the other, is vast and disturbing. The acceleration of economic development is handicapped by shortage of vocationally skilled manpower. Universities must collaborate with other educational agencies in the drawing up of comprehensive programmes of education and enlightment and should lead in the spreading of new ideas, concepts and skills to farmers, workers, teachers, administrators, managers, etc.

III. University adult-education programmes and methods

As we have just seen, in adult education the responsibilities of universities are not limited. Adult education is a vast field with a rather extensive and undefined scope. Research on the content and methodology of the subject, investigation of adult edu-

---

2) Adult Education in Norway by Ingeborg Lycke, Universitetsforlaget, Oslo (1964), p. 35.

cational needs, production of related literature and advanced professional training for adult.educators should be among the primary duties of university adult-education departments. Major adult-education programmes which should be offered through extra-mural Departments fall in the following categories:

(a) Academic (formal) education. Many universities offer formal education leading to degrees, diplomas or certificates in various areas of study or preparatory and remedial courses leading to examinations. Such educational courses are offered not only as a matter of social justice to those who cannot be accommodated in regular day classes but also to increase and develop the high-level manpower resources of a country without interrupting economic production. Formal education programmes, especially those leading to degrees of certificates, are often offered in the evenings to enable adults to continue their education on a part-time basis without leaving their regular employment. Some large countries with a relatively sparse demographic distribution like the USA, the USSR and Australia have used correspondence methods and other mass media for instructional purposes at advanced level.

(b) Liberal education. Liberal-education courses are offered to those who are interested in self-fulfilment through informal education, in subjects such as literature, music, painting, social studies, etc. In an age of increasing specialization and mechanization, narrow-mindedness and misuse of leisure time should be counteracted by importing liberal-education courses which promote not only hobbies and other personal interests but also intellectual advancement and social responsibility. Such courses can be offered through evening classes, lecture series or tours, panel discussions, study circles, creative art or film shows, travelling expositions of artistic and cultural collections, TV and radio educational programmes.

(c) Vocational education. Vocational advancement of adults is one of the most important educational tasks in modern society.

In a period of increasing knowledge and technology, men and women already engaged in various capacities should be provided with opportunities to improve their knowledge, skills and competence in various occupations. In developing countries, owing to the rapid growth of industry, commerce and agriculture, there is an urgent need for retraining of technicians, business managers, accountants, agricultural supervisors, etc. through evening classes or residential courses or by organizing periodic seminars, conferences and workshops.

(d) Training of adult educators. In developing countries the most deterrent factor in educational expansion or development is the shortage of teachers in general and adult educators in particular. In such countries the universities must initiate in-service or pre-service programmes in adult education or community work. The training programmes must include courses in subject-matter areas and related pedagogical techniques.

We have just examined some adult-education programmes and the methods by which they should be carried out. Adult education, as we have already seen, is a vast field of educational activity. The needs of modern societies are many and even changing. The university should play its vital role in this area in the following ways:

(a) In fields in which the university possesses special qualifications, extra-mural or extension departments, in co-operation with the other teaching departments of the university, should sponsor educational programmes of an academic, liberal, vocational or professional nature for external or residential adult students.

(b) In areas or projects which can be sponsored by other government ministries, like colleges of agriculture and educational or community development, or statutory organizations, such as the broadcasting corporations, and literacy campaigns, or voluntary organizations, such as the trade unions or co-operative societies; the university must provide guidance and services. It must undertake research and training in adult education and should conduct periodic evaluations of such projects.

I would like to conclude this short paper on the role of the university on adult education with a statement of Indian adult educators concerning the opportunities and challenges of modern universities:

> The opportunities of our universities in the present age to irrigate their communities with the waters of life-giving knowledge are vast and exciting. We also dare to hope that society will not grudge them the resources they need for the task. If, then, the universities fail to take the opportunities as they come, it will amount to a great moral failure.3)

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3) Report of the Conference on University Adult Education, The University of Rajasthan and J.A.E.A., Jaipur (1965), p. 4.

THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION

by John Okach

I take correspondence instruction to mean teaching by means of well-constructed lessons - written, oral, televised, broadcast or tape-recorded - in which the face-to-face method of teaching is not the predominant element. In this method of teaching the lesson or lessons are dispatched to the student. It is characterized by a two-way communication between the student and the teacher, such that feed-back is a necessary part of it. The main feature of correspondence instruction is the medium of writing and the others are aids to supplement it. The written lesson may be sent by mail, by a messenger or by any other means of transportation.

Dr. Lars-Olof Edström notes the following characteristics of correspondence instruction:

> "Correspondence instruction is, for reasons of economy, a means of mass education, although there is nothing, from a theoretical point of view, to prevent the establishment of correspondence instruction for only a handful of students.
>
> Correspondence education is very flexible. It can be combined or integrated with most other forms of education in order to form an instructional system, and it can easily be adapted to suit local conditions and needs. Although in itself a system, it can very easily be absorbed into systems mainly based on other forms of teaching". 1)

It is fair to argue that in the light of these characteristics correspondence instruction, while it includes written material, can be combined with other aids.

It is immaterial, however, whether it is written or not. One thing it must be, namely, self-instructional and it must have provision for communication between teacher and pupil.

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1) *Mass Education: Studies in Adult Education and Teaching by Correspondence in some Developing Countries*, p.

In other words there must be feed-back. It must make the student actively involved and engaged in problem-solving.

There are two kinds of correspondence courses and here I quote Dr. Edström again:

> There are two main kinds of correspondence courses: the self-contained course and the study guide. The self-contained course is, as the name indicates, complete in itself, whereas the study guide comments on, clarifies and supplements material originally not intended for self-study, e.g. school or university textbooks, films, sound tapes, etc. The study guide arranges the basic, main body of the material so that the student's learning is facilitated. Generally speaking, the course breaks down the subject material into comparatively short steps, called "lessons", "units", "assignments" or "letters", at the end of which the student has to send in answers to questions, sometimes called "tests". Sometimes the units are sent to the student a few at a time, sometimes he receives the whole course at once.

Although correspondence instruction is rapidly changing its character, owing to technological advances, the traditional method of preparing written material for the students is still strong. Indeed, it is doubtful whether the written aspect will ever disappear.

Correspondence instruction, as such, started in the 19th century. It has been looked upon as an inferior method of teaching in Britain and some Commonwealth countries, probably because most of the commercial correspondence schools have used it as a means of making money, with paying regard to the kind of materials they dished out to their students. In some countries, however, it has gained an honourable place. In America, Japan, Sweden, Australia, Zambia and Norway it is regarded as a respectable way of acquiring knowledge. But even in these countries it did not become respectable overnight.

As a system of education, correspondence instruction is cheap and one can reach a bigger audience than by other methods. It may be in order to pause, at this juncture, and examine what advantages it has for both developed and developing countries.

Correspondence instruction is considered an inexpensive method of teaching. It is inexpensive because, with a small staff of, say, 100 teachers, a correspondence school can teach literally thousands of people in a manner that would be impossible with face-to-face teaching. In this respect it can alleviate the shortage of teachers in a country which faces this problem. Moreover, because the teachers do not meet the students, they can work at times of their own choosing. This means that one can make use of specialists in other organizations, who can write courses or mark papers during their spare time.

In the process one can reach people anywhere in the world. In other words, correspondence education defies the geographical limitations imposed upon residential or day-school systems. Thus, in a country which is sparsely populated, one reaches pupils in whatever remote part of their country they may be residing. In short, correspondence education makes it possible for one to reach an audience which is otherwise unreachable by other pedagogical methods.

One of the characteristics of modern society is the mobility of the people. Whereas in the traditional face-to-face teaching people who move from one geographical area to another would have their studies interrupted in the event of, say, transfers, correspondence education offers them the opportunity to continue their studies wherever they may go. This is impossible if a student has to attend an institution where he or she must learn with others.

It should be remembered also that correspondence education makes it possible to train teachers on the job, so that they learn and practise whatever has just been learnt. This is of even greater advantage to the practising teacher, because, while learning and gaining valuable practical experience, he or she also earns as a worker.

Also important to note is the fact that correspondence instruction probably takes into account - more than any other method - individual differences in motivation and rate of learning. The student is allowed to proceed at his own pace and he receives attention to his own problems and questions. This is of vital importance, partly because it avoids the fallacy of assuming that all the students have the same ability, as is the case in classes in which the students are all classified as being at the same standard. It therefore saves a student the embarrassment of being left behind if he is in a class in which the others learn faster. By the same token it saves the brilliant student the disappointment or boredom of having to sit in a class and wait for the slow learner. We are all probably aware of how adults hate to see their ignorance revealed in the presence of others. Correspondence instruction shields them from this revealation!

Another aspect of correspondence instruction which is also important is that the student finds that the course provides him with a permanent record. Unlike the school or university student, the lessons are sent him in such a way that he will never miss anything. A schoolboy or university student may fall ill and miss a class and therefore the lessons or he may be there but find the teacher going too fast for him to take down all the essential points, apart, of course, from the fact that he may misunderstand the teacher and put down wrong information. Indeed, he may hate the teacher and fail to follow a full lecture or talk. The correspondence student does not face this situation.

One should not forget also that correspondence education is flexible, so that, apart from the fact that it is likely to be more carefully planned and organized than the average, it can be made to suit local conditions and needs. It can also be combined with other forms of education. It also makes feedback possible in a manner that neither television nor radio can do. Indeed, it can be personal - much more so than both radio and television. The student can be made to feel that it is he and he alone who is monopolising the attention of his teacher. This sense of having a personal teacher is lacking in radio and television, where the student knows that others are also watching or listening. Apart from this, student and teacher are more independent of each other than in the conventional methods, so that when and where the student studies is a a matter for himself alone. Thus, people who live far away from educational institutions or those who wish to work and earn while they are studying can do so. For adults this is all the more important because they have more than one role to play. Studying is just one of the responsibilities of an adult and it is necessary that he should be able to discharge his responsibilities and still be able to study at times convenient to himself. This also gives the correspondence student the opportunity to discipline himself, which is a form of training per se. He has, too, the opportunity of relating what he learns to real life, as he is not isolated from the community.

Despite all these advantages of correspondence instruction, it has its shortcomings. It is a very difficult way of studying and not many people are capable of subjecting themselves to self-discipline. Where there are no study circles or group activity, it can be a very inhuman method of education, in that the student lacks personal contact with his teacher, so that the human element is missing.

Unless supplemented by other teaching aids correspondence instruction, as such, is incomplete. It cannot, for example, adequately furnish a student with a knowledge of a foreign language.

In the African context it cannot fully meet the needs, because as a system it requires as its prerequisites the possession of good roads, reliable transport and good communications. These are still lacking in Africa, so that it may take weeks before some students receive their lessons or corrected papers. We know that this may adversely affect the student's motivation, if he is forced to wait for too long. Nor can some Africans afford such aids as tape-recorders or even lamps and tables, to study on their own. While one can argue that these are not weaknesses in the system, it should be remembered that the system has its limitations in an African setting. On the whole, however, it is the only method by which some of our educational problems can be solved and solved faster.

TRAINING SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT WORKERS BY CORRESPONDENCE

by A Shawky

One of the basic problems in African countries is the scarcity of trained personnel, on the one hand, and the inefficiency of the majority of those who are already trained, on the other. The field of social development is no exception in this respect. On the contrary, the need for training, retraining and further training of personnel is a clamant need in this field. Even those who are highly trained are usually oriented to problems, concepts and practices prevailing in industrialized communities, a matter which limits their readiness to understand and accept a more flexible and dynamic point of view, which is basic in dealing with African social problems.

So the question of training social-development workers in Africa is a problem for the following reasons:

(1) Because the number of personnel in need of training is great at different levels and in different specialities.

(2) Because the number of personnel qualified for training others is limited.

(3) Because the funds allotted for social-development training are limited.

So the great question is always how to find an effective method of training which can reach as many people as possible, using the least number of staff and the least amount of funds! The correspondence method of education is never mentioned as a possible solution. There is always an air of doubt about it. The main reason is that people who have been trained in a conventional face-to-face way cannot see any other way or do not give themselves the chance to think of any other way, while the very limited group who have been forced by circumstances to study by correspondence never have the courage to speak about it, knowing that mentioning it may throw doubt on their academic efficiency and professional activities.

The case for the correspondence method of education

Arguments for training by correspondence have been advanced in several places and so it may be of value to examine them here. However, because this is a new set-up, it may be useful to make a quick reference to them, to illustrate how the method can meet African training problems in the social-development field.

(1) Training by correspondence can reach a large number of students, using a relatively few number of teachers.

(2) Training by correspondence is a very cheap method when compared with face-to-face methods of training. The requirements for teachers, facilities and equipment are usually much less in correspondence methods.

(3) Training by correspondence does not require students to leave their work or duty stations. They can study during their leisure hours. This fact alone has real importance because (a) the work is never hampered (on the contrary, it gains, especially if there is a relationship between what the student is learning and what he actually does in his job), (b) students coming from poor families can earn their livings and study at the same time, and (c) employees living in small towns far from big cities, which are usually the centres for advanced education, can get their education without having to migrate. This is of real importance, as those who migrate for study are usually tempted by the attractions of big cities and tend to stay there after training. As a result, smaller towns are deprived of their best-qualified personnel.

(4) Employees posted far from conventional training centres usually complain about being deprived of training opportunities. Correspondence courses help in solving this problem.

(5) In the conventional face-to-face type of education, students have to move at the pace of the group or they are

considered failures. In correspondence education, every student can pursue his study the way he likes and at the speed he feels comfortable with.

(6) Correspondence education meets adult psychological needs more than face-to-face methods, as adult students are usually uneasy at the idea of sitting in a class-room and competing with other students and sometimes resent the idea - or at least feel unrelaxed when they have to listen to a lecturer who may be younger than they are. The correspondence method offers a very comfortable psychological atmosphere for the adult, as he can learn without telling anybody that he is a student and without being asked whether he passed or failed.

(7) Correspondence education helps the student to acquire the habits of self-reliance, patience and perseverance which are essential for future growth.

(8) If the student's studies are related to what he is actually doing in his employment, the situation offers the best atmosphere for learning, as the student gets the chance to practise what he is learning in an actual situation, and thus the material he is learning becomes meaningful.

Limitations of the correspondence method of education

Like any other teaching method, the correspondence method has its limitations. It is true that some of them can be dealt with in a more or less successful way, if the teaching staff is patient, imaginative and dedicated, but in normal conditions these limitations are there and, most of the time, should be accepted as built-in limitations. Some of these limitations are as follows:

(1) The relationship between the teacher and the student is, by the nature of the method, much less personal than that in face-to-face methods. It is true that many correspondence teachers do their best to make the method more personal, but still it remains impersonal to a very great extent. A teacher in a face-to-face teaching situation, who has to see the student

day after day for a whole year at least, and sometimes for several years, acquires, even without any intention to do so, lots of knowledge about the student's abilities and personal life and establishes a certain type of relationship, which facilitates the interaction important for the educational process. This type of relationship cannot be established in a correspondence course, with all the good intentions to establish personal relationships, and this is certainly a limitation which should not be ignored or underestimated.

(2) Long ago, rich families in many countries used to get first-class tutors for their children at home. Such a method is highly criticized, on the ground that the student learns from group experience as much as he learns from the tutor or teacher. The student learns how to co-operate, how to compete, how to express himself, how to defend himself, how to build friendships, how to help others, etc. In short, he learns how to be a social being, while living and growing up with other students under trained leadership. To say that people acquire their social skills through living in the family and the community certainly underestimates the role of qualified leadership in the socialization process, especially in sophisticated urban communities.

(3) Much of the work depends on the student himself. If he is not highly motivated, he may feel the difficulty, lose interest and then abandon the study. For this reason, a high percentage of drop-outs is usually associated with the correspondence method of education.

(4) Field-work or practical work, as it is called in many professions, is also a difficulty that has been mentioned in association with correspondence education. However, this problem is usually solved by (a) training those who are already on the job, using their seniors - after some training - as field-work supervisors, and (b) employing, for those who are not employed, special field representatives to help in placing and field supervision.

Such limitations, important as they are, do not by any means demolish the case for correspondence courses. All that they do is to show us that there is still a long way to go in perfecting the correspondence method, which is certainly a very promising method for developing countries during their current stage of development.

What is the problem then?

If the correspondence method of education has proved itself to be a reasonably successful method in many fields and in varied situations, what then are we worried about? Why do we ask whether it can be used for training social-development personnel?

In fact, professionally trained, social-development personnel are right when they express their reluctance to accept the method. That is because, as a profession at body, they have developed in the course of time experience and insight in training methodology and have arrived at some professionally accepted training formulas which seem very hard to change - not because of lack of flexibility, but because these formulas have proved to be basic and successful in training professionals.

Social-development personnel maintain that the following points are basic:

(1) That supervised student life is extremely important in helping the student to acquire the skills needed for working with people. Such skills are much more important for a social-development worker, whose main job is to work with people, than for an engineer who works with machines basically.

(2) That the discussion-group method - which is a basic feature in social-development training - is of the utmost importance in training social-development workers to acquire discussion skills, whether as leaders (presenting subjects, encouraging discussion, directing discussion, helping aggressive and withdrawn participants, summarizing, etc.) or as participants (verbal expression, listening, compromising, keeping to the

point, etc.). In addition, this discussion-group method also helps students to acquire the group-thinking habit, the ability to add ideas - or parts of ideas - together to form new ideas, the ability to analyze and organize ideas, the ability to accept others' pointsof view, the ability to find meaningful relationships between ideas and to generalize from specific scattered experiences, etc.

(3) That supervised field-work - with systematic statistical and narrative recording, and regular individual and group conferences with the supervisor - is the basic teaching method which helps the social-development worker to develop self-awareness, the ability to use himself to help others, the ability to define his role in a specific situation, and, in short, the ability to examine, diagnose and then act. That is why social-development trainers consider supervised field-work the corner stone of social-development training.

With all this in mind, we should appreciate the anxieties expressed by social-development trainers when they hear about training social-development workers by correspondence. With all these objections to the use of the correspondence method in training social-development workers, the picture looks dim and complicated. However, I believe that this complication arises from two basic sources:

(1) Considering pre-service training as the only type of training needed.

(2) Lack of full understanding of modern methods of correspondence teaching.

Elements in the correspondence method

Many people think that correspondence education means sending cyclostyled material, usually taken directly from a text-book, to students for them to read and thus get ready for an exam. Commercialized correspondence colleges, with their basic interest in profits, have propagated this false notion of correspondence education. To get a clearer idea of the method, it may be useful to mention the highlights of the method.

(1) Course-writing. Written material sent to students is basically different from that used in regular text-books, as text-books are usually written on the assumption that they will be further explained in class by a teacher, while correspondence material is written on the assumption that it will cover both sides, the text-book material and what the teacher would say in class too. Thus, correspondence material is usually self-contained, self-explanatory and stimulating for further study.

(2) Lesson units. Students receive their lessons in units. They do not receive all the material at the same time. This helps the student in dividing his study into meaningful parts and encourages him to keep on studying.

(3) Two-way communication. After studying the lesson, the student has to send a written assignment to the teacher, who comments on it in detail in a way that stimulates further study (not only correction) and sends it back to the students, who may comment again in turn and so on. This continuous process of two-way communication between the teacher and students is basic to any correspondence course.

(4) Free pacing. This is also a basic characteristic of correspondence education. The student is free to pace his study at the speed he likes and feels comfortable with. Such a basic principle helps many correspondence students to overcome their practical difficulties.

(5) Maintaining the student's interest. Continuous communication on a personal level between the teacher and the counsellor, on the one side, and the student, on the other, is very important in correspondence courses. This is basic, in order to keep the interest of students and to help in solving their study problems as they arise.

Training social-development workers

Now, with this in mind, let us examine the possibilities of training social-development workers in five areas of training. In-service training, on-the-job training, further training, training trainers and pre-service training:

In-service training

Refresher courses and additional training for social-development administrators, supervisors and workers who have already been trained can be carried on by correspondence. Administrators need refresher courses and more advanced courses, especially in social administration. Supervisors need refresher courses and more advanced courses, especially in supervision. Social-development workers need refresher courses and more advanced courses in human behavior, methods of working with people and programme content.

Such correspondence courses can be either carried on on their own or in preparation for seminars, workshops, conferences and oral-training courses.

On-the-job training

Social-development workers, who are already in service and who have never had a chance of professional social-development training, can get such training by correspondence or at least a large part of it. Because they are already doing the job, correspondence training will be more meaningful and will have greater impact on their behavior and efficiency, as mentioned earlier at the beginning of this paper.

Further training

I referred before to what is called "additional training". This is, of course, one type of further training on the job. However, I mean here formal additional training for a master's or a doctor's degree, for example.

In fact, the correspondence method is already in use at this level of training. The course is usually divided into two parts - courses and thesis. Universities normally insist on a residential period, which is usually the course period. Most universities allow the use of correspondence during thesis or dissertation writing. If the supervisor is trained as a correspondence teacher, certainly better results would be achieved.

Training trainers

Most social-work educators - as in other specialities - believe that they can train because they have a command of the subject matter. This is not true, of course. Professionals at this level usually resent the idea of sitting in a class to get training. They usually depend on reading reports, professional magazines, etc. to increase their efficiency in social-development education. Correspondence courses could be a very useful tool in this direction, once they are accepted.

Pre-service training

Even in this area, correspondence courses could be useful, if a careful plan is drawn up, using oral and correspondence courses wherever appropriate.

If we examine a four-year course (which is almost the standard pattern now in African universities), we shall find that the whole of the first year is usually devoted to background subjects like sociology, psychology, economics, general description of the field, etc. This background material can be easily taught by correspondence. Again, with further examination, we shall find that a good part of the fourth year is devoted to writing a final project, which is again a likely period for correspondence education. So it is basically the second and third years which need residential training to meet the requirements of social-development professionals.

Such an arrangement could certainly save the cost of training and could help in solving an acute problem which most university towns have, i.e. the housing problem.

Thus, as we can see now, there is a real need and possibility of introducing correspondence-teaching methods in the field of social-development training. The degree of success of this method depends entirely on the efficiency with which the method is used. It depends on the professional level of course-writers, editors, designers and production specialists, the sincerity and dedication of teachers and their ability to personalize their relationships with students and, most important, the efficiency, soundness and ingenuity of the director of training.

THE STRUCTURE AND WORK OF THE GEZIRA BOARD AS A CASE STUDY IN DEVELOPMENT

by Gamal Idris El Hibir

By the beginning of this century, the financial position of the Sudan was terribly precarious, and nothing could be planned that had no direct connection with the economic needs of the country. There was in particular a pressing need for capital expenditure on communications and irregation works. For both of them seemed tobe of vital importance in any conceivable economic development. The country, being very extensive, had a special need of railway lines to link the main centres of population and production, and of a port on the Red Sea, through which the inhabitants could import their requirements and export their products. Also, in the absence of known mineral wealth, the chief source of potential production was the land, and irrigation seemed to be the obvious way of increasing yields. Fortunately there was plenty of naturally fertile soil.

Meanwhile the future irrigation possibilities of the whole Nile were investigated by an eminent British irrigation engineer, Sir William Garstin, who in 1904 published a report in which he strongly advocated the building of a dam or barrage at Sennar on the Blue Nile to provide irrigation for the Gezira.

And so the Gezira seemed to be predestined by nature for large-scale development because of its extensive cultivable area, comparatively dense agricultural population, and gentle slope from south-east to north-west, and from the Blue Nile to the White Nile, making irrigation possible from one of the dam sites on the former river. All these circumstances influenced the development of the Gezira region.

Two types of agriculture were practised in the Gezira before the launching of the canalisation scheme: riverine agriculture and rain-land agriculture. Along the river banks land was cultivated in two ways: (a) the sloping margins of islands or the lower parts of the river banks, called guruf, were cultivated after being flooded by the river, and (b) the higher terraces of the river banks, which were rarely or never flooded, were irrigated by water raised from the river by means of shadufs (hand-operated levers) or sagia (water wheels). Thus, the riverine inhabitants of the Nile have been acquainted since time immemorial with the system of agriculture by irrigation. Further inland, where no possibility existed of irrigating by flooding at high water or by traditional methods, the inhabitants had to rely exclusively on the rains. Here crop production was ensured by the construction of earth banks or terraces to conserve water.

But it was the traditionally irrigated agriculture on the river, especially where sagia were used, which largely influenced the partnership system adopted in the Gezira scheme. The sagia cultivation was generally carried out on a partnership system between the different parties supplying the land, the sagia itself, the animals drawing it, and the agricultural labour. The proceeds (i.e. the crops) were shared between the partners according to a certain formula acceptable to all of them. This traditional formula, which later came to form the very basis of the partnership system of the Gezira scheme, was first discovered during the experimental stage of the scheme at Fadasi village by the Inspector of Agriculture who was responsible for the nearby Tayiba Pilot Project in 1911. This Inspector found that crops produced by the water-wheel irrigation were divided into the following shares out of a total of thirty:

(a) The landlord, who provided a tenant with a plot for cultivation, was entitled to claim three shares of the crop or one-tenth.

(b) The owner of the water wheel, who was also responsible for its repair and maintenance in good working condition, was entitled to claim three shares or one-tenth of the crop.

(c) The owner of the cattle moving the water wheel received six shares or two-tenths of the crop.

(d) The person who supplied fodder for the cattle was entitled to two shares.

(e) The person who supplied seeds and implements was to receive four shares.

(f) The remaining twelve shares or four-tenths of the crop were for the tenant.

So the agricultural experience of the local people in general, as well as the riverine agricultural traditions in particular, were valuable assets for the proposed agricultural development in the area. Even cotton cultivation was practised in some parts of the Gezira, relying on rain. It seemed that a good number of physical and cultural factors were favourable to or at least did not present any obstruction to large-scale agricultural development in the region. The dilemma confronting the Government was how to raise the capital. The idea of inviting foreign investment was entertained, but one of the difficulties here was that the local people who owned the land were neither acquainted with large-scale economic development nor used to foreign investment in agricultural production. However, being anxious to improve its financial resources to meet its various liabilities, the Government found no way but to enforce a land policy with two conflicting objectives, namely, protection of the natives' rights and development on a sound economic basis for commercial purposes. Following this policy, the natives, whose lands were registered, were forbidden to sell, mortgage or otherwise dispose of any land without the consent of the provincial governor, and the genuine investor with capital was not discouraged. In fact, in the absence of Sudanese capital there was no other way of developing agriculture in the Sudan, except by foreign concessions.

The triple partnership, as has already been indicated, had its origin in the local traditions of riverine cultivation, in which the provisions of land, water, supervision and labour were considered as different responsibilities, and their suppliers were awarded proportionately from the crops grown. And so, broadly speaking, and in accordance with the terms of this triple partnership, the following plan was drawn up:

(a) The Sudan Government was to provide land and water. To provide the land, the Government, after surveying the Gezira land and registering it in the names of individual owners, passed a series of enactments, culminating in the Gezira Land Ordinances of 1921 and 1927, whereby land use was completely divorced from land ownership. In accordance with this legislation, the Government compulsorily rented for 40 years the land needed for cultivation under the Gezira scheme, and promised to pay to the owners (who were given, in addition, priority tenancies when irrigation was subsequently applied to their land) an annual rental of P.t. 10 per feddan, which was then equivalent to the highest current rental in operation. The Government also acquired some land for the scheme by purchase.

The irrigation works were made available by a loan from the British Government. In return for these provisions, the Government was to have 40 % of the cotton proceeds.

(b) The Sudan Plantations Syndicate (succeeded by the Sudan Gezira Board in 1950) was to provide the managerial ability and the working capital. Its duties included the clearing and levelling of the land and the provision of subsidiary canals; the recruitment of administrative, accounting and clerical staff, together with the provision of offices, housing, stores and any other buildings necessary for the proper management of the scheme. It was also responsible for the financing and marketing of the cotton crop. Advances were also to be made from time to time to the tenants, as it might be necessary to enable them to finance their own obligations.

In return for this the Syndicate was entitled to 20 % of the cotton proceeds.

(c) The local cultivators (the tenants) were to provide the agricultural labour. They had to undertake at their sole expense to till the land, sow, and harvest the cotton crop and deliver it to the management at its collecting stations in the field.

In return for this, tenants were entitled to 40 % of the cotton proceeds. In addition to their share of the cotton crop, they were also to enjoy all the durra (sorghum) and lubia (Bonavist bean) they could grow, free from any Government tax. Recently, the Board has adopted a policy of intensification and diversification of crops, whereby plots to grow vegetables, groundnuts and wheat are given to tenants, wherever possible, and these crops are neither shared with the tenants nor taxed.

The essence of the land policy to be followed in the Gezira, and the basis of the partnership system, and many other vital points were agreed before the Sennar Dam was completed and the Gezira scheme as a whole was launched. But despite the fact that the outstanding characteristic of the scheme - the partnership system - was basically influenced by local agricultural traditions, the local people themselves seemed to have been given no voice in all the decisions that culminated in the establishment of this major development scheme. The Government, which was fully aware of the precarious financial position of the country, assumed complete responsibility for deciding unilaterally on what ought to be done. On the other hand, despite the country's pressing need for capital, speculators were not given easy terms. Thus, by entering as a partner in the scheme, the Government, beside other gains, tried to protect the tenants against any possible exploitation by investors, especially as land speculation had been increasing abroad since the early days of the reconquest of the Sudan. And so, notwithstanding its regional character, the Gezira scheme was from the start a national investment for the whole country.

However, with the official opening of the dam in 1925, the Sudan Plantations Syndicate was given the Gezira concession for a period of 25 years, and since that time we have witnessed considerable expansions in the irrigated area in the Gezira. With the opening of the Sennar Dam, the area was immediately increased to 80,031 feddans, and continued to increase until the cotton area was 234,715 feddans (1952) and the total cultivable area of the scheme was approximately one million feddans.

Recently with the development of the huge South-West Managil Extension, the cotton area has been increased to about 542,238 3/4 feddans (1966), and the total area of the scheme to almost two million feddans.

That is broadly the story of economic development in the Gezira, a development which has radically changed the mode of life in that region, for it has brought about a substantial source of wealth. Today the position of the Gezira scheme is dominant in the national economy of the country, and has a great influence on other development projects. The importance of the scheme to the country as a whole can hardly be exaggerated. It supplies today about 60 % of the cotton production in the Sudan, and its long-staple cotton and cotton seeds provide about 65 % of the value of domestic exports. It also provides employment for about 80,000 tenants and their families and casual labour for over 300,000 people during its picking seasons, and 10,000 casual labourers employed by contractors during the ginning season. Over and above that, there is a large team of almost 10,000 personnel in its permanent establishment of managers, engineers, technicians, accountants, clerks, skilled workers and unskilled labourers. It also has a stimulating effect on the trade of the country, by providing cash to tenantry and paid employees.

As regards the Gezira inhabitants, the development of the area has made a great economic and social impact on them. Though the increases in tenants' incomes were not significantly high, yet their attitude has been completely changed towards a cash economy. Their gradual integration with growing urban communities has created in them new concepts of reasonable standards of living and stimulated new wants and demands. Today, despite any fluctuations in cotton yields due to climatic conditions, pests, plant disease or otherwise, as well as fluctuations in sale prices with disturbing effects on family budgets, the tenants are generally enjoying a reasonable standard of living. The highest income the tenants received from the cotton proceeds was in 1951. During that year, the yield obtained (6.8 kantars per feddan) was the highest in the history of the scheme, and it coincided with the Korean War. Cotton prices were then at an unprecedented level, raising the export value of the Gezira cotton to £54,837,000. The tenants' share was about £17,500,000 and the average net profit per tenancy was £800. That high income of 1951 induced tenants to spend lavishly without any provision for the future. Thus, it can be safely said that among other possible factors adversely affecting the tenants' income and aggravating their economic problems is their unwise spending. An example of this is their excessive and rising expenditure on labour to satisfy social criteria, for freedom from agricultural labour has always been highly esteemed in this society. Hence they have always cried that "the tenancy eats all its income", and consequently claim bigger slices of the cake to meet their expenses.

Social Development

Unfortunately social planning and social development lagged much behind the economic development in the Gezira area. There were reasons for that. First, the economic development of the area was motivated, as has already been mentioned, by the urgent need of the Government for quick revenue for nation-wide capital and current expenditure. Accordingly the question of social development received little consideration, either in the Gezira or anywhere else in the Sudan. Secondly, the Syndicate, though it appreciated the importance of social development, regarded this question as something additional which was not their particular concern. They held that their main concern was to build, with their technical assistance, an efficient economy, while it was for the Government and the local people themselves to deal with questions of social needs.

By 1950, the scheme was nationalized, and "the promotion of social development by any means having as a main object the benefit of the tenants and other persons living within the scheme area" was made one of the main duties of the new management - the Sudan Gezira Board - as prescribed in the Gezira Scheme Ordinance, 1950. To finance the various social-development activities, 2 % of the net proceeds of the cotton crop, as laid down in the Ordinance, is allocated for the purpose.

Adult Education as an Example of the Social Services Rendered in the Gezira Scheme

Historical background

Adult education in the Sudan began in the early forties. It was the Institute of Education, Bakht er Ruda, that took the initiative in undertaking experimental work in this field. The place chosen for the experiment was Um Gar, a small island on the White Nile comprising a group of small villages with a total population of about 10,000 people. Um Gar had been selected purposely for two main reasons:

(1) It is near to the Institute of Education, only 30 kilometres away, south of Bakht er Ruda, and this enables the staff to organise and supervise the work to be done.

(2) Agriculture is the main occupation on the island and the majority of the inhabitants live at subsistence level with no social services at all. Hence there is a suitable atmosphere for running the experiment.

The aim, as outlined by the Principal of the Institute, then was:

(a) To bridge the gap between the illiterate parents, who had missed the train of education, and their children, who have had the chance of catching that train. It was believed that giving such adults some sort of fundamental education would help members of the family to live in harmony and understanding.

(b) To give civic education, so that members of the rural community could play their roles adequately in improving their lot.

However, the Um Gar experiment in adult education was successful to such an extent that the Sudan Gezira Board negotiated with the Ministry of Education the possibility of introducing this kind of work in the Gezira scheme. As a result of these talks, adult education started in the Gezira for the first time in 1949.

The two agencies concerned - the Ministry of Education and the Social Development Department of the Gezira Board - agreed upon the following scheme. The Ministry would be responsible for

(a) provision of staff,
(b) training of staff, and
(c) allocating sums of money for educational purposes.

The Social Development Department would be responsible for

(a) preparing lodging accommodation for the Adult Education Officers (AEO),
(b) arranging transport facilities for them, and
(c) allocating sums of money as grants-in-aid for community self-help projects.

Personnel

1. Administration. The Senior AEO is in charge of the whole work - organization, supervision, co-ordination - in both the

Gezira and the Managil Extension. The Assistant Senior AEO assists in the work and he is stationed at the Managil Extension.

2. Field staff. There are two types of field staff: (a) the local AEO, who is the social worker at the block level, i.e. working in 10 to 15 villages, and, (b) the Resident AEO, who is the social worker who does follow-up work at the group level, i.e. in 90 to 100 villages.

Objectives

The goals which adult education in the Gezira aims to achieve can be summarised as follows:

(1) Developing the cultural activities of the inhabitants of the irrigated area.

(2) Training good citizens, aware of their rights and duties.

(3) Helping the citizen to discover the human and natural resources in his locality, acquainting him with the problems of his community and showing him the different ways of relying on himself and living in harmony and co-operation with other members of his community, so as to achieve the ultimate goal of raising the economic as well as the social life of the community as a whole.

(4) The creation of a faithful and responsible local leadership, which believes in its cause and mission and is the driving force upon which depends the success of any social plan.

The above goals show that adult education in the Sudan is a unique movement, comprising the principles of general culture, as well as the elements of modern social development. Thus, the AEO is concerned with developing a sense of good citizenship through civic courses, evening talks, discussion circles, educational films, lending libraries, etc. Moreover, he endeavours to organize the community as a whole, so as to enable it to make use of its resources for the betterment of its living conditions. The social-development plan is thus exploited for the realisation of any other social or economic plan.

The plan

The plan would therefore draw up the broad lines upon which the adult Education Officers could base their programmes according to their respective local environments. The four-year period which the local officer is to spend in a certain locality is divided into four phases to facilitate efficient and useful service and to help in assessing the whole work at the end of this period.

The first phase. The minimum period for this phase is three months, during which the local officer makes a detailed study of the community in question, in order to acquaint himself with the economic and social institutions.

The second phase. The length of this phase is six months. This is the stage in which the community is to be mentally and psychologically prepared to take an active role in social and economic progress. The local officer is here primarily concerned with the educational and cultural activities, e.g. civic courses, evening talks, discussion circles, literacy classes, educational visits and film shows, etc.

The third phase. This is a two-year phase, during which the local officer proceeds with the educational and cultural programmes. In addition, he stimulates the community to carry out small projects, in order to gain the confidence of the people, particularly in preparing the village council and its specialized committees to play the leading part in the future development of the village, when it is time for the local officer to leave finally. The youth are encouraged to develop their talents and use their leisure time in what would be beneficial for the community in which they live. Last but not least, special attention is paid to children, and infant schools, together with other recreation facilities, are made available to them whenever possible.

The fourth phase. This is a one-year phase and it is confined to completing the projects already undertaken. The local officer carries out the following work:

(1) Perfects the projects which have already been accomplished.

(2) Hands over his duties to the village council or to village development committees and local leaders.

(3) Evaluates the work that has been done during his stay in the area.

It is certain that the information the officer has collected in his first survey and regular reports are of the greatest help in determining the success or failure of the work as a whole.

Follow-up stage

This stage has no time limit and it is the stage in which all the local officers' accomplishments during the above four phases are to be followed up. Hence the duties of the Resident Adult Education Officer are as follows:

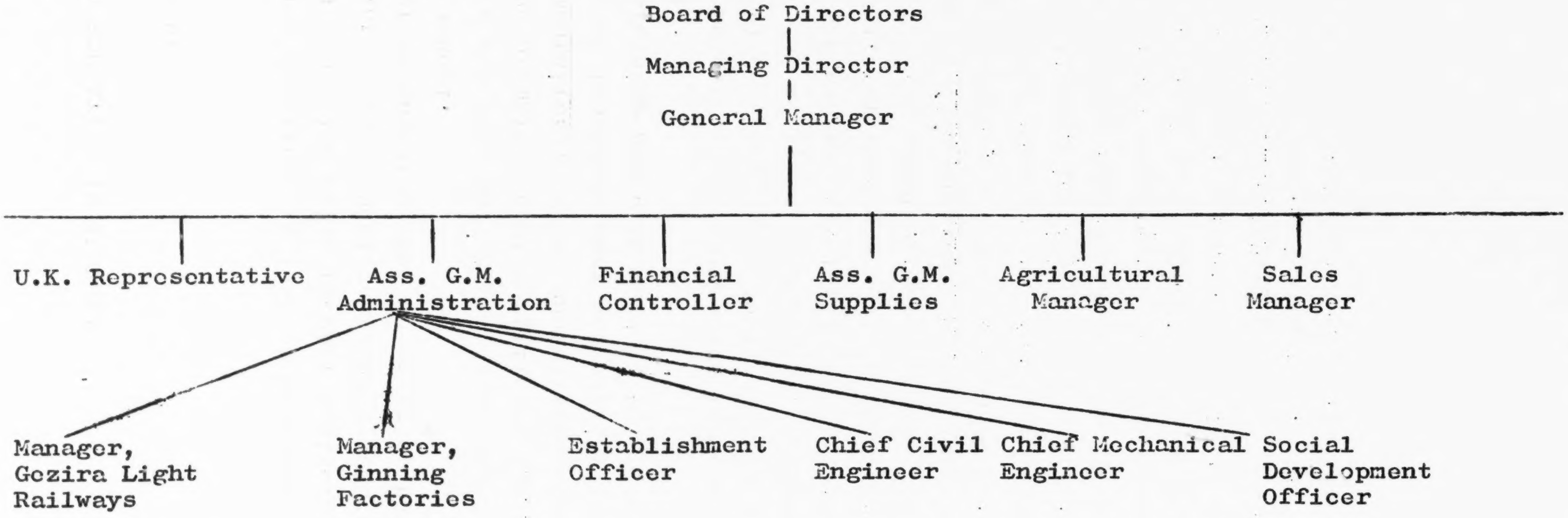
(1) Following up the actual achievements.

(2) Following up the mental enlightment resulting from the local officers' campaign, in order to adopt new projects for community development based on scientific grounds and urge the inhabitants to partake in such development.

These are just some of the economic and social benefits of the Gezira scheme. As a successful economic enterprise, the scheme raises more socio-economic questions than it answers, and creates as many problems as it solves. The new and dynamic social and economic energies it generated set in motion continuous processes of change. Indeed, this is in itself a vital achievement.

Ministry of Finance
and Economics

Management Organization Chart


Board of Directors
Managing Director
General Manager
U.K. Representative
Ass. G.M. Administration
Financial Controller
Ass. G.M. Supplies
Agricultural Manager
Sales Manager
Manager, Gezira Light Railways
Manager, Ginning Factories
Establishment Officer
Chief Civil Engineer
Chief Mechanical Engineer
Social Development Officer

CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION IN ALGERIA

by Maâche Chelihi

The massive departure in 1962 of European teachers (18,000 out of 25,000) compelled us to recruit monitors to ensure the normal beginning of the school year and to educate the greatest possible number of children who, up to then, had not been able to go to school.

Recruiting was done through an examination on a level superior to the primary-school certificate (certificat d'études primaires élémentaires). These unqualified teachers, without any experience of teaching, must necessarily receive a rapid professional training and work hard to better their general cultural level.

For this purpose, our Centres for Professional and Cultural Formation (CFCP) were opened in 1963. They soon became cultural meeting-places for everyone in the area, teacher or not.

A centre has usually six levels of teaching. The first is the medium level, for students who can read and write. It prepares them for the adult primary certificate (certificat d'études primaires élémentaires pour adultes) in two years. Then there is the preparatory level, for students with enough basic knowledge, preparing them for the same examination in one year.

The four following levels, corresponding to the first four forms of the secondary school, are for monitors and non-monitor students with a level superior to the primary-school certificate. The fourth or terminal level especially prepares monitors for the general and professional cultural certificate (certificat de culture générale et professionnelle), an internal examination which enables them to become instructors; this level prepares also non-monitors for different administrative selective examinations.

In the same centre, teaching is given only in one language, either Arabic or French.

Students at the preparatory and medium levels receive notice, every Wednesday, through the daily paper, of their working programme for the coming week. They use textbooks which are different from those used in normal schools and which are given them by the headmaster of the centre when they register.

Three times a week, during sessions lasting for an hour and a half, they have direct contact with their teachers, who carefully check and correct their homework and give them all the supplementary explanations needed.

Students at the other levels receive every two weeks a booklet entitled L'Ecole du Travail (The Workers' School), produced by the National Pedagogical Institute (IPN), which gives them programmes for the two following weeks. At the cultural and professional centre, according to the same schedule as for the two preceding levels or in some places from 8 to 12 a.m. on Thursdays, they too have direct contact with the teachers.

As described above, the method in our centres is to use both correspondence material and oral teaching. The study guides help students in learning lessons and doing tasks. The oral sessions, illustrating the "face-to-face" teaching, give students the opportunity to get to know their teachers and to be known by them, and to receive immediately useful advice and information. It is not always necessary to send assignments for correction, since they are given back directly to teachers by the greater part of the students, except those who, on account of their dwelling far from the centre, cannot attend the sessions and send their papers to the centre nearest their homes, where they are, of course, regularly registered. (These papers are forwarded as shown in Figure 1.)

In the 381 centres we have, the student numbers are as follows (October 1967):

	Monitors	Non-monitors	Total
Arabic-speaking	6,748	2,833	9,581
French-speaking	6,070	6,880	12,950
Total	12,818	9,713	22,531

When they register, the students pay to the headmaster a yearly subscription varying according to the level:

Medium level	30 Algerian dinars	(1 Algerian dinar equals 1 Swedish crown)
Preparatory level	40 Algerian dinars	
Levels 1, 2, 3 & 4	75 Algerian dinars	
Monitors	120 Algerian dinars	

The monitors pay 10 dinars out of their monthly salary. They pay more than the other students, since they have in addition courses in pedagogy.[1)]

The funds are transferred to the National Institute, which is in charge of the printing and distributing of study material and the payment of teachers' salaries.

Manuscript lessons (with illustrations and diagrams, if required), elaborated for every level at the IPN by 12 full-time teachers and checked by an inspector and an educational counsellor are sent to the printing section (the first printed copy is again checked before the printing is continued). Having its own printing section enables the IPN to get the whole study material ready in good time.

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1) Before they begin teaching, monitors have to take, for 45 days during the summer vacation, theoretical and practical training. On the job, in their own classes, they are guided by the material elaborated by the IPN (prepared lessons, educational films, lectures by radio, and TV in certain areas). They are very often visited and given advice by the pedagogical counsellor; once a week they also attend a lesson presented either by an experienced teacher or by one of their own number on a given subject and participate in the discussion which follows.

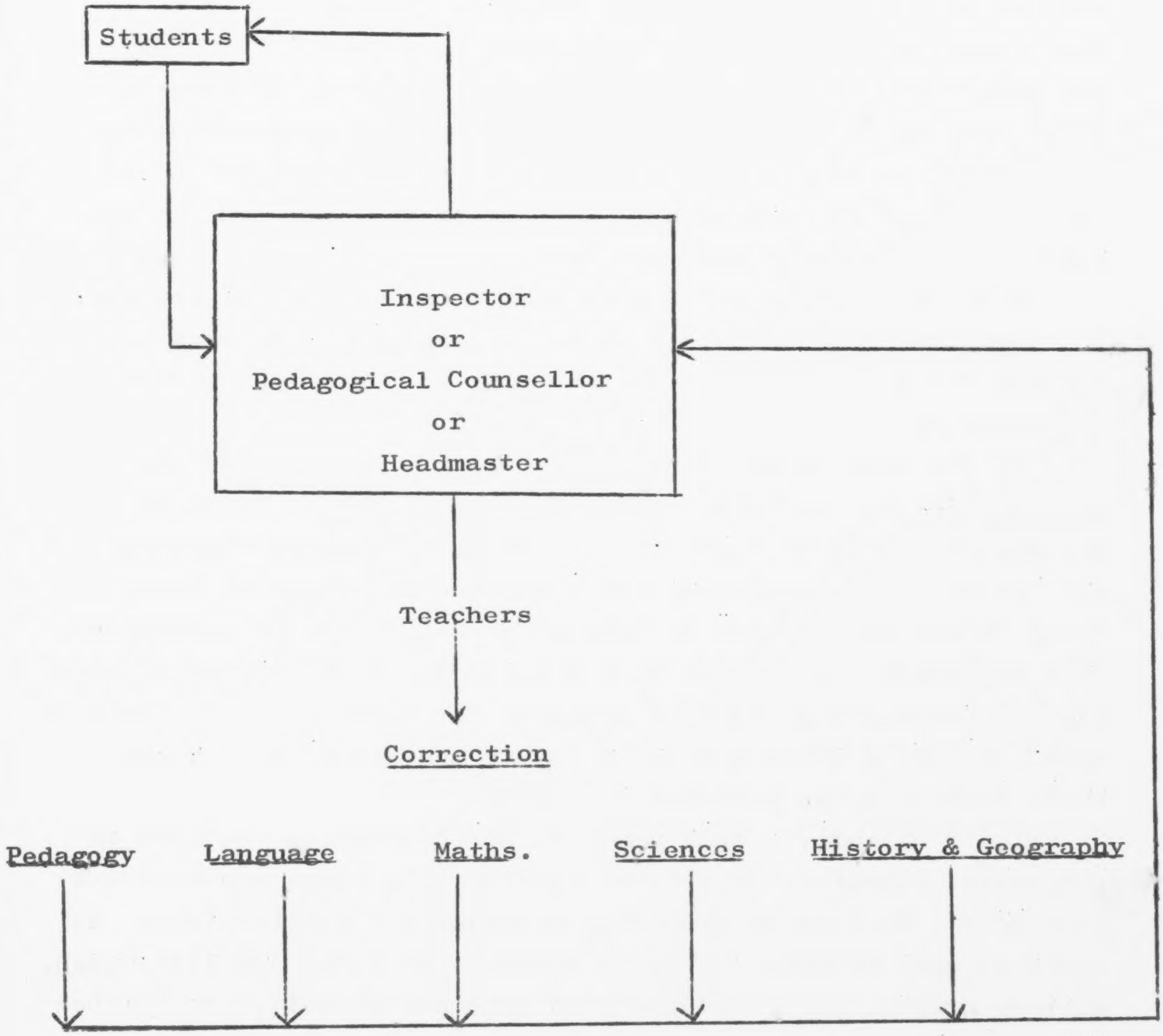
The team at the IPN consists of full-time teachers, but in the local centres we have part-time teachers whose hourly salary is 8 D.A. Directors have a quarterly salary which depends on the number of forms: 100 D.A. for centres up to four forms and 150 D.A. for those with more than four forms. The duties of directors are to register students, to transfer their fees to the IPN (to which they also send statistical information), to keep up to date the marking of students' books and to send to the Academic Department of the area remarks and suggestions about the material used.

Directors do not issue certificates at the end of studies. But when the students pass a public examination (internal examination for monitors), they get certificates from the Ministry of Education.

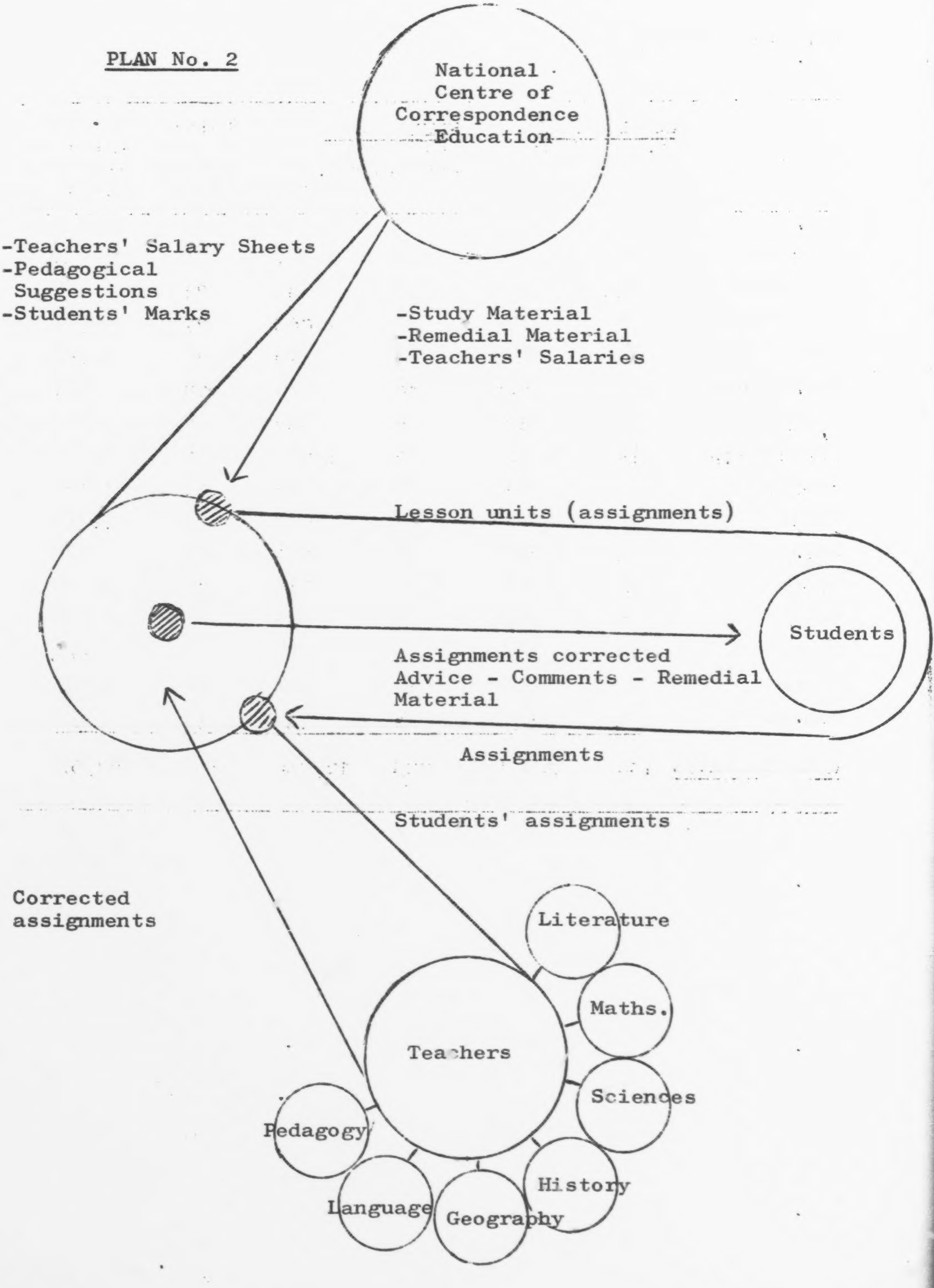
By the first week of May, a revision programme for the baccalauréat has probably started, with educational films of the French school at Vandes. The IPN is at present planning the use of TV on a national level and the extension of every local "Ecole du Travail" to make it a real centre of correspondence education, controlled by a department of the IPN in Algiers and decentralized as much as possible for lectures and correction work. Figure 2 shows how these future centres will work and their link with the National Institute.

To be operative, this project, which could be realized in two years, requires, of course, considerable human and material resources. We hope to gradually overcome all difficulties. As early as next October two pilot centres, at Batna and Tizi-Ouzou, will be opened, in accordance with this new formula. In October 1969 this project will be extended nationwide.

PLAN No. 1


Students
Inspector
or
Pedagogical Counsellor
or
Headmaster
Teachers
Correction
Pedagogy
Language
Maths.
Sciences
History & Geography

PLAN No. 2


National Centre of Correspondence Education
-Teachers' Salary Sheets
-Pedagogical Suggestions
-Students' Marks
-Study Material
-Remedial Material
-Teachers' Salaries
Lesson units (assignments)
Students
Assignments corrected
Advice - Comments - Remedial Material
Assignments
Students' assignments
Corrected assignments
Teachers
Literature
Maths.
Sciences
History
Geography
Language
Pedagogy

CULTURAL CENTRES

Centre	ARABIC PART No. of centres	ARABIC PART Total No. of students	FRENCH PART No. of centres	FRENCH PART Total No. of students	Total of all centres (A+F)	General Total of students (A+F)
Algiers	32	1,330	55	3,527	87	4,857
El Asnam	12	589	9	831	21	1,420
Tizi-Ouzou	9	642	18	1,065	27	1,707
Oran	10	928	16	870	26	1,798
Mostaganem	10	383	10	494	20	877
Tlemcen	3	309	6	532	9	841
Constantine	18	1,334	24	1,287	42	2,621
Annaba	9	976	12	784	21	1,760
Setif	12	986	21	989	33	1,975
Oasis	10	504	14	486	24	990
Medea	10	348	9	418	19	766
Saida	4	283	4	244	8	527
Tiaret	5	401	4	284	9	685
Batna	6	349	14	686	20	1,035
Saoura	6	219	9	453	15	672
General total	156	9,581	225	12,950	381	22,531

NATIONAL PEDAGOGICAL INSTITUTE
ALGIERS
(IPN-ALGER)

CULTURAL CENTRES IN ALGERIA

Number of Students in Both Languages (Arabic and French)

	No. of Centres	Students						Total				
		Middle level	Preparatory level	1st level	2nd level	3rd level	4th level	monitors	Non-monitors	Girls	Boys	General total
Arabic part	156	788	1,508	1,966	1,905	1,762	1,652	6,748	2,833	891	8,690	9,581
French part	225	1,738	3,545	1,171	2,076	2,239	2,181	6,070	6,880	2,028	10,922	12,950
Total	381	2,526	5,053	3,137	3,981	4,001	3,833	12,818	9,713	2,919	19,612	22,531

THE PEOPLE'S EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION IN GHANA - A CASE STUDY

by Abdelwahid Abdalla Yousif

The recorded history of educational associations in Ghana goes back to the 18th century. This paper1) will attempt to throw some light on the origins and development of the People's Educational Association (P.E.A.) as a voluntary organization which contributed a great deal to the development of extra-mural studies in Ghana. The idea of setting up an organized students' body was greatly encouraged by the Oxford Delegacy tutors, who conducted extra-mural classes in West Africa in the late 1940's.2) It is essential to note that the tradition of setting up such associations was well known in Ghana. What was lacking was an organization with clearly defined objectives. It is hoped that this paper will pose a few questions on the involvement of the P.E.A. on both the National and the International levels, its relationship with the Institute of Extra-Mural Studies and with the Government, and whether the P.E.A. could be considered a Mass Movement.

1. The background

The coming of the European powers to West Africa created a number of urban centres with new characteristics, as compared with the traditional trading centres in that part of the world.

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1) This paper is condensed from a M.Ed. Thesis on "University Extra-Mural Studies in Ghana and Nigeria 1946-1964". The thesis was presented to the University of Leicester in December 1967.

2) Mr J. Mclean stated that "Mr Collins, Mr Kimble and I have encouraged the idea of setting up in each colony a national student body (analogous to the Workers' Educational Association in Britain) to undertake organizational responsibility for classes and to help in articulating students' demands". See Rowley House Paper, Vol. II, No. X, 1948-1949.

In these new urban centres, the colonial administrative structure, which disrupted the traditional social pattern, created the need for some form of new grouping, which was often expressed in the form of voluntary associations. The movement began by the formation of a few associations in the large centres. Later it spread to all parts of West Africa and the number of groups multiplied rapidly. Some of these groups were based on age, sex and occupation; youth and students' associations, women's organizations, craft guilds, professional bodies and trade unions. The objectives were often very broadly defined as political, economic or social. The predominent types, however, were the ethnic associations and the broadly educational/cultural associations. Both types were dominated by the educational elite. In the majority of cases the educational/ /cultural associations were formed by small groups of Europeans and educated Africans who spoke a common language and, to a certain degree, developed some common cultural interests. To the Europeans such associations - often taking the form of literary and debating clubs and mutual-improvement societies - were an interesting way of passing their leisure; to the Africans they represented a "linking process on a basis other than simple kinship".3)

In the Gold Coast (now Ghana), these associations flourished on the southern coast as early as the 19th century,4) adopting to a large extent the pattern of contemporary British

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3) Hodgkin, T.L., Nationalism in Colonial Africa, London 1962, p. 84.

4) According to I. Wallerstein, these associations started much earlier. He believes that the oldest association known in the Gold Coast was the Toridsona Society, founded in 1787 by an African minister at Cape Coast with the purpose of promoting conviviality and opening a school to educate twelve mulatto children; it had 26 members (African and European), who met every week. See Wallerstein, "Voluntary Associations" in J. Coleman, Political Parties and National Integration in Tropical Africa, California, 1966, p. 322.

voluntary associations, with much emphasis on philanthropy.

Between 1865 and 1874 the educated elite in the Gold Coast was pre-occupied with the organization of the "Fanti Confederation", but after 1874 voluntary associations came to be founded on a much more Europeanized pattern. Associations such as the "Rifle Club", the "Good Templars" and the "Odd Fellows" came into existence. They were often criticized for the snobbish behaviour of their organizers, "who never spoke a word of less than three syllables". Yet some of these associations believed in the educational mission. For example, a debating club was proposed at a tea party in Saltpond in 1886 on the grounds that "The Government neglected us intellectually, so we must educate ourselves".(5) The closing years of the nineteenth century saw the emergence of a new brand of the educational/cultural associations organized mainly by the young men and women, who found themselves trapped in the new urban milieu with all its alienating features. They sought refuge in organizing themselves into social and cultural groupings such as the "Star of Peace Society" - a study circle for youth founded in 1895 in Cape Coast. But the most significant development was the foundation of the Fanti National Political Society in 1889. The founders expressed their dissatisfaction "with all the demoralizing effects of certain European influences"(6) and determined to stop further encroachment on their nationality. They sought a revival of their national culture in collecting, discussing and compiling a record of native sayings, customs, laws and institutions.

After World War I, the country's prosperity, which was reflected in the improvement of its means of communication and an increase in its economic growth, allowed for more contact between the urban and the rural centres. These factors, together

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5) See Kimble, D., A Political History of Ghana 1850-1928, London 1963, p. 148.
6) Ibid., p. 149.

with the increase in the educational faculties under the Guggisberg Plans, created a high demand for voluntary associations of the type in question, to provide social and economic awareness and solidarity in the towns among the people coming from a given tribe, village or district. It was an opportunity for the educated elite to spread modern values and institutions among the traditional societies from which they had come. A good example of this trend is the Youth Conference held in Accra in 1930. It was composed of delegates from various clubs and societies, "a gathering of educated citizens to exchange ideas on economic and social problems facing the country".7)

This trend marked a transition in the nature of these associations from purely literary and cultural groups to groups with special programmes. They attracted a new type of elite, conscious of its influence on the national political scene. Writing about his experience as a young teacher at the Roman Catholic Junior School at Elmina in 1930, Kwame Nkrumah stated, "... I used much of my spare time at Elmina to help found the Teachers' Association there. I felt that if such an association were founded, it would be the first step towards improving their status as teachers, supplying them with means of airing some of their grievances and getting them remedied by the authorities".8) A year later he was engaged in a similar activity at Axim on a less professional level, "when I was not studying, my spare time was devoted to forming the Nzima Literary Society, which is still functioning today, and also a number of literary societies in the Axim area". At this stage these associations threw their doors open to everybody - literate or otherwise, irrespective of their religion or tribe.

It should be noted that the line of division between the

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7) Padmore, G., The Gold Coast Revolution, London 1953, p. 57.
8) Nkrumah, K., Ghana: The Autobiography of Kwame Nkrumah, Nelson, Edinburgh 1957, p. 22.

various voluntary associations became much more blurred during the years that followed World War II, that is to say, most of these associations became part of the organisational structure of the national movement, as we shall see below. A good example, however, is seen in the relationship between the Youth Organization Committee formed by Nkrumah and others in 1948 and the Convention People's Party (C.P.P.).

Another form of association that came to prominence in the post-war years was that of the clubs of the African intelligensia and professional class, such as the Rodger Club in Accra and the Hodson Club in Kumasi. These clubs served, in Thomas Hodgkin's words, "as centres, not only for relaxation and social discourse - in symbolic opposition to the all-white European clubs - but also for the exchange of ideas and the framing of politics".9) The African educated elite became aware of the need for the introduction of some form of education in these clubs. For example, some associations of a syndical character, such as the Old Achimotans Association, made notable contributions to the education of workers in Kumasi, where they taught literacy to adults before mass education programmes were started.10)

When the Secretary of the Oxford Delegacy for Extra-Mural Studies visited Ghana in 1947, to explore the possibility of starting extra-mural programmes there, he discovered that a number of the social clubs in Ghana were making provision for adults by sponsoring occasional lectures. He visited the Hodson Club in Kumasi, the Rodger Club in Accra, the Social Club in Sekondi and the Eureka Club at Cape Coast. He also discovered that there were other voluntary groups which were much nearer

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9) Hodgkin, op.cit., p. 88.
10) See Du Sautoy, Peter, Community Development in Ghana, London 1958, p. 83.

in their provision to the extra-mural type of activity. He made the following notes in his report:

"In Accra: the study group (in play-reading, musical appreciation etc.) arranged by the British Council. The weekly study group in economics and psychology, arranged by the Youth Centre. A list of topics is prepared and a speaker is normally invited each week to address the group."

"In Sekondi: A weekly study group consisting mainly of railway clerks meets to study and discuss a particular book."

"In Kumasi: KAYSEC (Kumasi Secondary Evening Classes), an organization consisting mainly of non-teachers, runs a nightschool (from 7.30 to 9.30 p.m.), at which subjects of interest to adults who wish to take school certificate or an equivalent examination are taught.11)

This sort of educational work played an important part in shaping the future plans of the Oxford Delegacy with regard to West Africa as a whole. It represented a reservoir from which the proposed extra-mural classes could draw. On the other hand, it can be said that most of these associations lacked a clearly defined sense of purpose and hence a well-thought-out plan, according to which the work would go. They were in the majority of cases ad hoc gatherings with neither the experience nor the social dynamic to guarantee their continuity. They lacked the skilled body of tutors who knew the techniques of teaching adults. There was no students' organization behind the work.

2. The P.E.A.

When the Oxford Delegacy for Extra-Mural Studies formulated its plans for West Africa, one of the main objectives

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11) Oxford Extra-Mural Delegacy, Report on the Secretary's Visit to the Gold Coast, February, 1947.

was "to organize a demand for Adult Education facilities which could only come through an active and educationally conscious students' body, and that would eventually result in a vigorous Adult Education movement".12) The architect of the delegacy scheme, Mr Hodgkin, had his long experience in the W.E.A. classes in England and so had his colleagues, J. Mclean and David Kimble, who were seconded to Ghana to implement the scheme. The former stayed in Ghana for a few months, during which he did pioneer work in the field of extra-mural studies. The latter arrived in April 1948 to organize the work on a more permanent basis. From the very beginning, the tutorial-class method of the English extra-mural tradition was adopted. This policy made it necessary for the Extra-Mural Department to work for a voluntary organization which would play the role of the W.E.A.

In February 1949, at a residential conference on "Adult Education" at Aburi, the idea of setting up a National Educational Association was canvassed. After a great deal of discussion, some sixty people from about ten Extra-Mural Centres decided to form the "People's Educational Association", "a voluntary democratically constituted, non-sectarian and non-party political organization". The objects were:

(a) "To stimulate and satisfy the demand of the people for Adult Study; and particularly to provide opportunity for serious study and discussion to all those in Ghana who wish to understand the problems of their own society and to discuss those problems frankly and independently",

(b) "To work for a system of Education in Ghana which shall provide for everyone opportunities for complete individual development and fit them for the exercise of social rights and responsibilities".

The constitution states that "For the purpose of accomplishing these objects, the association shall inter alia:

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12) Oxford Delegacy, Memorandum submitted to the University Extension Lectures Committee prepared by the Secretary, T.L. Hodgkin. March 9th, 1946.

(a) Arrange systematic courses in subjects suited to university discipline,

(b) Organize less formal work, such as Public Lecturers, one-day schools, weekend residential courses and other educational activities,

(c) Assist in Community Development work, both practically and by discussion, to increase popular understanding of local needs,

(d) Organize and take part in publicity campaigns to stimulate national interest in educational needs and policy,

(e) Seek representation on, or to influence public bodies concerned with education, both locally and nationally".

Membership was to be open to every adult on payment of a modest subscription. A very important article in the constitution was the one that referred to the relationship between the association and the Institute of Extra-Mural Studies. It read: "In carrying out its work, the association shall be prepared at all times to co-operate with the University College of Ghana, the Kumasi College of Technology, Government, local authorities, trade unions, co-operatives, and any other appropriate bodies, both inside and outside Ghana." The local branch was made the unit of organization. All local branches were to be grouped into regions, of which there were five, each region being governed by its own council. Supreme authority was invested on an annual conference of the association, which was to elect a central executive committee.

The P.E.A. was seen by some people as "both an expression of the demand in the Gold Coast for such classes (i.e. extra-mural classes) and an admission that the University College Department of Extra Mural Studies by itself can make no headway unless this demand is organized *locally* by local people, so that the Department resources, its tutors, organizers. transport and books are most effectively used".13)

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13) *West Africa*, August 12th, 1950.

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To others, "such an association like the P.E.A. and the growth of Adult Education in the Gold Coast, augurs well for our country. It is self-Government in practice and an excellent answer to those who doubt, without knowing, the ability of the Gold Coast and Africa generally, to manage its own affairs in a reasonable and democratic fashion."14)

Thus within a short period of time the P.E.A. proved itself as a useful educational organization. Only two years after its inception it was described as a "living organization, full of promise, and deserves the active co-operation of all men of good-will... It has taught many people to take interest in their surroundings."15) Branches of the P.E.A. were established all over the country and membership increased rapidly as the following table shows:

Session	Branches	Paid-up membership
1949/50	60	Not available
1950/51	80	-
1951/52	100	-
1952/53	131	-
1953/54	142	-
1954/55	162	3.727 a
1955/56	160	3.520
1956/57	120	Not available
1957/58	134	4.000
1958/59	Not available	Not available
1959/60	134	-
1960/61	142	-
1961/62	135	-

a In 1955 the total number of adults in Ghana was about two million. Taking the total number of P.E.A. members to the nearest round figure, this means that 1 in every 500 joined the P.E.A.
Source: P.E.A. & I.E.M.S. Annual Reports.

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14) Ashanti Pioneer, October 2nd, 1950.
15) Ashanti Pioneer, May 4th, 1951.

3. Activities of the P.E.A.

The first publicity leaflet adopted by the P.E.A. First Annual Conference states under "Local Activities" that (a) "it is the main business of a branch to organize a university extra-mural class, (b) an active P.E.A. class should be able to undertake local surveys under the guidance of the tutor on such topics as health, marketing, language problems... (c) ... to organize one-day schools, week-end conferences and residential courses, occasional public lectures on topical subjects, group discussion work, literacy campaign classes, social functions, exhibitions and visits to places of interest".

Although the main pre-occupation of the association was the organization of the demand for extra-mural tutorial classes, the P.E.A. also paid attention to the less systematic type of provision, such as conferences and residential schools. It also contributed a great deal to the success of the community development programmes on a number of occasions; members of the P.E.A. participated in the promotion of self-help projects. These included establishing local libraries, building a post-office, digging wells and organizing literacy campaigns. But perhaps the most remarkable achievement of the P.E.A. in its early years was the initiative its Tsito branch took in starting to build the Awudome Residential College at Tsito in 1949. It was the first residential adult centre in West Africa. Another very important project was the Komenda village project. (Komenda was a fishing village half-way between Sekondi and Cape Coast.) It was undertaken by the Department of Extra-Mural Studies, the P.E.A. and the mass education teams, who were attending a course on "Tutor Training and Adult Education" at the time; students from the University College and Achimota took part in the project. About 90 participants (including 15 women) set out:

"To enlist the co-operation of the local people in practical improvised self-help by means of a conspicuous voluntary example."

"To study the educational problems of getting a whole community so interested to understand their own needs that they are prepared to do something about them."

"To undertake a social survey as a useful means for discovering the facts as a basis for action."

"To encourage the idea of voluntary vacation work by students."(16)

The project was very successful. It invited favourable comment from the National Press. For example, the Ashanti Pioneer wrote: "Suppose the young men in every large town in the Gold Coast gave an educational lead to their countrymen in the surrounding villages, suppose they went out there in the evenings, at week-ends, on holidays, to devise ways to help and improve their water supply, then the sanitation of the village, transport, education and indeed any aspect of the village life. How long then will the Gold Coast remain a backward, illiterate, divided land?"(17)

The P.E.A. became more and more interested in such problems. At its second annual conference it reiterated its willingness to co-operate with the Government in its vast Community Development Programme. In the Western Region the Chairman talked to the 1952 regional conference in similar language:

"Lest there be any misconception that adult education is just for the literate... we are also interested in the illiterates, for as long as they have a vote in our community, we must ensure that they have a basis for making important decisions as citizens..."

In 1955 the P.E.A. was approached by the Government to assist in the education of middle-school leavers. After pro-

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16) Kimble, D., Progress in Adult Education. University College Extra-Mural Department, 1949. p. 27.
17) Quoted by Kimble in op.cit. p. 24. No date was given.

tracted discussions, the National Executive of the P.E.A. welcomed the Government's suggestion but made it clear to the Government that the P.E.A. was not primarily a teaching body but an association of adult students, whose first concern was the organization of systematic courses of adult study for its own members. The National Executive proposed to the Government that the P.E.A. should confine its assistance to a limited and clearly defined field of further education. It was agreed that the Government should finance the scheme which the P.E.A. would start on a trial basis. The scheme involved the "instruction of young people under the age of 21, whose formal schooling did not extend beyond Middle Form IV". It was further stated that "the instruction, which will be basically remedial in character, is designed to assist those who have left school at an early age, who lack the background for formal education required of students of extra-mural classes, and who are too young and too inexperienced to benefit from formal extra-mural classes." The scheme was successfully launched during 1957/58 and by the end of the year, the Ministry of Education expressed satisfaction with the way it was being conducted. Consequently the P.E.A. was granted £G 9,350 for the session 1958/59 to enable it to continue the work. During that session four types of courses were provided:

(1) Evening classes. The 12 urban centres which were opened during 1957/58 were continued with first- and second-year courses; and four new centres were added. One of these was at Ho, mainly for young civil servants and pupil teachers. An evening class of this kind usually held 28 weekly meetings. Tuition was provided in subjects such as English language and literature, history (with civics), geography (with current affairs) and elementary mathematics. Classes usually started with an impressive attendance, frequently of as many as fifty, but this gradually subsided as the session wore on, ending up with an average of 25.

(2) Week-end non-residential courses. These were organized mainly for pupil teachers.

(3) One-week residential vacation courses. These courses were for pupil teachers and took place during the academic session. They dealt with one main topic, which was usually supplemented by seminars on current problems of a national and international character.

(4) Three-months residential courses. These were for groups of carefully selected individuals, who were given tuition in subjects such as English language and literature, social studies, current affairs, agriculture, etc.

At the tenth Annual General Conference in 1959, two of the proposals adopted were (i) that "the National Executive should take up with the Institute of Extra-Mural Studies the students' request that lecture courses of extra-mural classes might be so planned as to satisfy the demand of those preparing for public examinations such as the G.C.E..." and (ii) that "the P.E.A. should endeavour to bridge the gap between mass literacy campaigns as directed by the Government... and university extra-mural classes, by organizing a country-wide scheme of classes and special courses for the ever-increasing numbers of those who did not fit into the two extremes of mass literacy and university extra-mural classes."

By 1961 the trend seemed to be for a revision of the P.E.A. programmes. The annual report for that year stated that "we need, therefore, to re-orientate and revitalize our organization in such a manner as to be capable of formulating new and purposeful programmes of adult education which shall ensure that the best in our traditional culture is preserved and enhanced..." This change was advocated by the Government. The Secretary of the National Council for Higher Education wrote to the Director of Extra-Mural Studies: "Osagyefo has given instructions for the establishment of an Institute of Public Education to be responsible for the work of the Extra-

Mural Institute of the University of Ghana, for the people's educational association programmes and for Workers' Colleges to be established..."[18] I shall deal with this point in more detail later on in the paper.

4. Contact with international organizations

As early as 1950, the P.E.A. made contact with similar organizations elsewhere. In that year it officiated with the International Federation of Workers' Educational Associations (I.F.W.E.A.). Through its relationship with the member associations of the I.F.W.E.A., especially the British W.E.A., the P.E.A. exchanged Annual Reports, Periodicals and Programmes. It maintained some contact with the Sudanese Workers' Educational Association, the Canadian Association for Adult Education, the Indian Adult Education Association, the German Folk High Schools Association, and much closer contact was maintained with a vast number of American associations.

The National Secretary of the P.E.A. travelled widely in Africa, Canada, the USA and Western Europe, and participated in a number of regional as well as international conferences and seminars. The P.E.A. benefited a great deal from international co-operation. A very obvious example is its scholarship scheme, which was made possible by a grant from the Trustees of Fircroft College in England, and an international trust known as the "Boeke Trust", associated with the Bourneville Works Council of Messrs. Cadbury Brothers in England. The scheme provided two scholarships annually for one man and one woman to go to Fircroft and Hillcroft Colleges respectively for one-year courses. Between 1954 and 1961, 16 such scholars

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18) Extract from a letter signed by E.C. Quist-Therston (INC/ /K/1918) dated 9th May, 1962.

benefited from the scheme.[19]

5. Relationship with the Institute of Extra-Mural Studies

The P.E.A. was related to the I.E.M.S. by mutual agreement and representation on one another's governing body. The major part of the I.E.M.S. work was devoted to the provision of university non-examinable lecture courses for P.E.A. branches. These courses were organized by the P.E.A. at branch level under the supervision of the I.E.M.S. full-time organizers. The National Secretary of the P.E.A. was an employee of the I.E.M.S.; but the two bodies were before 1962 completely independent. Neither issued directives to the other. The I.E.M.S. required for its lecture courses a minimum of 24 people paying a class membership subscription of six shillings for one academic session. This fee was shared proportionately between the P.E.A. branch and the regional and national organizations to meet organizational expenses.[20] The pattern of relationship between the two bodies changed a great deal, after 1962, as we shall see below.

6. Relationship with the Government

From the time of its inception until 1960 the P.E.A. had enjoyed full freedom of organization, and had attempted to maintain the political balance between the Government and the opposition, thus adhering to its "non-party political" principle. But at the 12th annual conference in April, 1961, Mr S W Yeboah, a M.P. and Regional Commissioner (an administra-

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19) Two good examples are Mr Joe Opare-Abetia, a P.E.A. member from Ashanti Region. After he had finished his course at Fircroft, he went to Leicester University, where he obtained a B.A. He is now Principal of the Workers' College. Takoradi. The other example is Miss Emina Jiagge, who went to the London School of Economics to do a degree course after she had spent a year at Hillcroft.

20) The membership fee was five shillings per annum payable to the Treasurers of Local Branches. Two-thirds of this fee was paid to the Regional Treasurer, one-half of which was transferred to the National Treasurer.

tive as well as political post), told delegates: "these are challenging times for us in Ghana and in Africa... Here is then the challenge for the P.E.A. to play its full part in this process of mental re-adjustment, particularly at this time when our great leader... has called upon all true citizens of our new Republic to apply themselves to a study of the nations' problems and needs through study groups organized with the Party (i.e. the C.P.P.) and its constituent bodies, and indeed in all other voluntary organizations..." He asked the delegates: "How can you as a national organization, whose aim is ultimately cultural, fail to develop a strong political - not party political - outlook /my italics/ towards the enhancement of our national culture...?"

When the conference was concluded, one of its resolutions was: "that the P.E.A. reaffirms its unfliching loyalty to the President and the Government..."

During the year 1960/61, the programmes of the P.E.A. continued as usual. But during the following year (1961/62), pressure was brought to bear on the P.E.A. to play a much more positive role in building a new Ghana. It was put to the 13th annual conference by Mr Dawouna Hammond, then Minister of Education. 21) He invited the P.E.A. to: "take the initiative in helping the nation by so orientating its programmes as to equip the adults of this country - both educated and uneducated - to adjust themselves successfully to the new situations which are bound to arise in our new efforts to reconstruct in the shortest time possible, the whole of our national life..."

Reports of the National Executive for that particular session carried the same political tone. In a reference to what the Executive described as the "silent social economic

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21) See P.E.A. Annual Report 1961/62, p. 5.

scientific and industrial changes sweeping Ghana", the belief was expressed that it was a responsibility of the P.E.A. to awaken in the Ghanaian adult population, "a sense of personal responsibility for equipping themselves for the new society... There is also a need to re-educate the entire adult population..."22)

Although the P.E.A. received the usual grant for the scheme of further education during 1961/62, the Government plans for the re-organization of the Institute of Extra-Mural Studies, reference to which was made earlier, meant, in effect, that the scheme would no longer be the sole responsibility of the P.E.A., since the projected workers' colleges were meant to provide courses for the G.C.E. as well as non-diploma courses. This, it seems, was a move towards taking away an important function of the Association and a way of (or device for) re-organizing it.

In September 1963, and during the Second Annual Bubere School held at the then Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, the P.E.A. was dissolved. It was decided that in its place a public educational association should be established. But the idea never caught the imagination of the general public. The P.E.A. groups grew weaker and smaller over the years. Attempts are now being made to revive the Association, but nobody can predict to what extent the lost ground can be recovered.

Was the P.E.A. a mass movement?

It is worth remembering that the P.E.A. was born at a time when the National Movement in Ghana was at its zenith; the country was still in the aftermath of the 1948 February riots, and the political dispute within the U.G.C.C. was reaching the breaking point, with Nkrumah leading the radical wing

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22) Ibid.

against the conservative elements. The need for popular associations of any sort was much greater at that time, since they were meant to serve as important channels of communication between the politically conscious groups and the mass of the population. Many of the voluntary associations formed during the late 1940's shared with the political parties the same nucleus of membership. For example, when the A.Y.A. was formed in 1947, among its leading members were Cobina Kessie (a Kumasi Lawyer) and B.D. Addai (a Kumasi merchant elected to the Legislative Council in the Kumasi Municipality in 1946). They were members of both the A.Y.A. and the U.G.C.C. Other leading members were A. Mensah (a schoolteacher who became a C.P.P. M.P. in 1951). In 1948 the A.Y.A. had 98 members; by 1949 its members were the mainstay of the C.P.P. in Ashanti. When the C.Y.O. was formed in Accra in March 1949 (only one month after the P.E.A. had been formed), its chairman was K.A. Gbedemah, who became the first vice-president of the C.P.P.; its secretary was Kojo Botsio, who became the first secretary of the C.P.P.[23)]

The P.E.A. was no exception; it was dominated by clerks, junior civil servants, and teachers. These groups formed a significant proportion of the petty borgois stratum from which the C.P.P. drew its support. But, on the whole, the P.E.A. claimed to represent all social groups in the country. One of its national residents remarked: "In every P.E.A. group there are 20 or 30 adults - men and women of varying ages and drawn from every class of the local community... It is an association firmly based on the ordinary man..."[24)]

This confirms a previous pronouncement by the Ashanti

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23) See Austin, D., Politics in Ghana 1946-1960 (London 1964), p. 56 and pp. 81-84.

24) P.E.A. Annual Report 1955/56.

Times, which stated that "... about 40 per cent of the elected members of the assembly are members of the people's educational association groups in their constituencies or have played a part in the activities of the P.E.A."25)

Denis Austin, a former extra-mural tutor in the Ashanti Region noted that the Bekwai (a market town near Kumasi) Improvement Society, formed in 1950, had among its members a group which was prepared to join the newly opened extra-mural class in the town, and to form a local branch of the P.E.A. In Mr Austin's own words: "Most of the young men were members of both the improvement society and the youth movement as well as the people's educational association."26)

The P.E.A. appealed to the politically conscious groups, because it provided them with a platform on which they could discuss economic, social and political problems without being openly political. There were certain situations in which prominent members of the P.E.A. were involved in direct clashes with the Government. For example, the Swedru branch of the P.E.A. was organized by Cecil Forde (later Editor of the Ghanaian Times) in 1953, to protest against the Volta Project. Although this branch was a small one (it organized only 1 extra-mural class in that year), yet its action showed that the P.E.A. could be used for purposes other than educational. When in 1962 the Government came out with its policy of re-orientating all the existing popular organizations, such as the T.U.C., the co-operative movement, the youth organizations, and the women's movement, which were effectively transformed into subsidiaries of the C.P.P., the P.E.A. was left relatively intact until 1963, when it was finally dissolved.

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25) Ashanti Times, March 9th, 1951.
26) Austin, op.cit., p. 98.

Epilogue

In the opening page of this paper, it was mentioned that when the idea of the P.E.A. was introduced, it was hoped that something similar to the British W.E.A. would come into being. But whereas the original intention of Albert Mansbridge, the founder of the W.E.A., was that it should be a means of promoting university extension among the working classes, the promotors of the P.E.A. were unable to tie it to any specific social group. It grew to embrace all sections of the society, but it was dominated by the educated elite. This was inevitable, since that elite was by far the most dominating social group in the extra-mural classes prior to 1962.

Enquiries made among some of the people who were closely associated with the P.E.A. as to why the association was so easily dissolved usually brought the answer that the P.E.A. members were mostly Government employees, in particular, teachers and clerks, who would have found it difficult to oppose their employer. Sometimes, however, the answer given was that when the decision was taken, the P.E.A. had already fallen into the hands of the C.P.P., at least its executive posts. The second view is the more convincing one, since it can be confirmed by the messages and the resolutions of support for the Government, reference to which has already been made.

It is, however, a sad fact that, in a one-party state, leadership of the supporting organizations tends to represent the views of the party rather than those of the rank and file within the organization. Such a situation leads to frustration and dissension, and this is exactly what happened in Ghana after 1962.

It is often said that people kept away from the P.E.A. traditional debates and lectures because these were usually attended by detectives and party activists!

There were other factors which seem to have lead to the easy disintegration of the P.E.A. First, it was mainly "an association of extra-mural studies". The link between its members seemed to be primarily a temporary one, that was automatically terminated as soon as they had stopped availing themselves of extra-mural services. This was perhaps a basic weakness in its structure. Secondly, the principal purpose of the P.E.A. was "to stimulate and satisfy the demand of the people in subjects they consider important for adult study". This vague commitment led to the dispersion of its efforts through involvement on three fronts: (a) the I.E.M.S., (b) the Ministry of Education, and (c) the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development. It became a kind of a "consumers' association", the existence of which largely hinged not on its own connections but on the ready market. Thirdly, the establishment in 1962 of an Institute of Public Education deprived the P.E.A. of its voluntary principle; it was reduced to an organ of the Institute. A memorandum issued in 1962 27) recognized the P.E.A.'s continuing role as the sole organizer of all the courses to be run by the Institute of Public Education but stated, "... the enrolment fee which has been fixed at 10 sh. for every course shall be paid initially to the P.E.A. branch which shall in turn pay this money... to the Central Office of the I.P.E. in Legon. The National Executive of the P.E.A. will then decide with the council of the I.P.E. what proportion... shall be earmarked for the P.E.A...." Previously the P.E.A. had full control over this money, which was used to meet its organizational expenses.

On the administrative level, the same memorandum stated that "... the office of the National Secretary of the association shall continue to be held in the foreseeable future by the newly-appointed Deputy Director of the I.P.E., in addition to his normal duties... It is suggested that the I.P.E.

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27) This memorandum was prepared in Sekondi on the 9th of September, 1962. It does not carry any signature, but it was apparently written by the National Secretary of the P.E.A. as his residence was in Sekondi at the time.

should be represented on the National Executive of the P.E.A. by a member of the council of the I.P.E., in addition to the Director of the I.P.E. being made an ex-officio member of the National Executive of the P.E.A." Thus ended an important chapter in the history of this very interesting experiment. It can be said that a well-organized students' body can always provide extra-mural departments with a vital channel of communication, through which they can be aware of the students' needs. The lack of such a channel can limit the scope of activities of these departments and may cause their isolation. Wherever such associations existed, the extra-mural tutors are saved the trouble of doing preparatory work (administrative and organizational) which members of the associations usually do.

On the other hand, extra-mural departments should be warned against the idea of leaning upon a single organization. This is not to say that there is no case for a national student's organization - a W.E.A. or P.E.A. - but rather that to limit the channel through which ideas are made and organization is effected is to run the risk of a limitation taking place in both the scope and effectiveness of the work, and of the work becoming shaped to suit an immediate sectional interest - tribal, class, political or economic - instead of being directed to the nation's long-term interest.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A.Y.A.	Asante Youth Association
C.P.P.	Convention People's Party
C.Y.O.	Committee on Youth Organization
I.E.M.S.	Institute of Extra-Mural Studies
I.F.W.E.A.	International Federation of Workers' Educational Associations
I.P.E.	Institute of Public Education
P.E.A.	People's Educational Association
U.G.C.C.	United Gold Coast Convention
W.E.A.	Workers' Educational Association
T.U.C.	Trade Union Council

THE ROLE OF CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION IN NIGERIAN ADULT EDUCATION

by Daniel A Ologunde

Correspondence instruction has played, and is continuing to play, an important role in the education of many Nigerians. Many of the present-day Nigerian leaders - high-ranking civil servants at the national level, and representatives of the nation in international organizations - have obtained their advanced education through correspondence. Most of the products of the Nigerian universities made use of self-contained tuition notes or took correspondence courses at one time or another. Today, hundreds of our secondary-school leavers, and products of our teacher-training colleges study by correspondence to prepare themselves for higher education.

What are the historical, sociological and economic backgrounds to correspondence education in Nigeria? Why has private education through tuition notes attracted Nigerians over the years? In what fields of learning has education through correspondence been possible? What new needs, if any, could this medium of education serve? These are the questions which I shall try to examine in this short paper.

The scope of this paper

Before proceeding any further, I have to sound a note of warning. This examination of the role of correspondence instruction in the education of the Nigerian adult is in no way exhaustive. It cannot be, and it does not pretend to be.[1] Literature on adult education in Nigeria is very scanty. Learning by correspondence is a matter of methodological detail that would have received little attention in the literature on adult education. Moreover, statistical data on adult education in Nigeria are rare. In a way, it is futile to look for statistics on education by correspondence: there are none. The reasons for this absence of statistical facts and figures in this field are obvious. In Nigeria, no conventional planner of education has ever tried to extend his activity to this field. The correspondence schools that serve the Nigerian adult were, until very recently, all based overseas. They operate outside the country, outside the planned system. They are not obliged to send in annual returns - if they ever keep such non-financial records. The correspondent student, taking all the trouble and bearing the financial cost unaided to provide further education for himself, regards the transaction as private and personal; and he treats it as such.

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[1] Much of the material for this paper is drawn from experience in southern Nigeria, particularly in the Western Region (now Western and Lagos States). But what obtains here typifies the general trend.

But the unavailability of statistics on correspondence education need not bog us down. There is an alternative approach. We could trace the history of formal education, and from it elicit the trend of correspondence instruction, its origin (as far as that could be discerned), and growth, and then make statements of fact that would be no less valid than those backed by statistics. This is a subjective approach; I shall take it in this paper.

Formal education in Nigeria

Formal, that is, western literary education in Nigeria has a fairly recent history. It is a product of contact with western Europe, particularly with Britain, and to some extent with America. It is to be noted in passing that effective British colonization - which created Nigeria - was a post-1850 affair. As a political entity, Nigeria came into being only after the amalgamation of the north and the south, in 1914. But literary education dates farther back than 1914. For example, in northern Nigeria, where Islam flourishes, there were (as far back as the 17th century) great literary and religious scholars writing in Arabic. Effective literacy in the western tradition, however, came to Nigeria through the freed slaves returning to their fatherland from the settlement in Sierra Leone. Most of these were Christian converts and their education was evangelically oriented. They formed the foundation for Christian missionary activity in the 1840's.

Christian missions and voluntary agencies.

Formal education in Nigeria owes much more to the activities of voluntary agencies than to those of the government. Between 1840 and 1926 Christian missions and voluntary organisations opened and operated many primary schools without financial assistance from the government. During this period, the British colonial government regarded education as a spending service. It therefore participated minimally, either in opening and operating schools or in financing education. Systematic and effective government participation in education - operating schools, controlling the opening of schools, and awarding grants-in-aid to agencies operating schools - started only after the Phelps-Stokes Report in 1926. In that year the government spent 1.5 % of its revenues on education, mainly on primary education. But since then it has been expanding provision for education and spending more and more on education as the years pass by.

Education with limited objectives

Post-primary schools were few. The voluntary agencies, mainly the Christian missions, having educational objectives as limited as their financial resources, could effectively carry on primary education only. They did open a few purely literature-oriented post-primary institutions to train teachers and/or priests. The colonial government, inspired by the system of education in Britain, paid much more attention to literary than to technical or vocational education. It needed clerks, and these it produced.

Education and status

So great was the demand for educated personnel - teachers to teach in the ever-expanding schools, and clerks to operate the civil-services machine - that a high premium was laid on education. On obtaining the First School Leaving (otherwise known as the Standard Six) Certificate, for instance, the product of the eight- or nine-year primary education was sure of a good job with a comparatively high salary and social status.

Right from the start, the average Nigerian has been made to realize that western education - literary and numerary - is the gateway to vast opportunities for advancement; the higher the standard of education, the greater the benefits. The possession of a certificate was equated with education, and that was an index to a new social status. That tradition of laying a high premium on the possession of a certificate persists today.

Demand for schools

As a result of the prestige given to education, more and more people were sent to school. There was an increasing demand for more schools at a time when few schools were available. Both the voluntary agencies and the government opened more schools. But with each slight expansion grew a greater demand which neither of the two providers of education could meet. People who had no opportunity for admission to the schools outnumbered those who had. Already the secondary-school products had also started to seek higher education.

Higher education and correspondence instruction

There was a new opportunity for higher, that is, post-secondary education when, in 1932, the Yaba Higher College was opened. But no sooner had the graduates of the College got into service than they discovered that the best education, and the highest the country offered, only equipped them for posts subordinate to those of contemporary expatriate officials. They became discontented.[2] They yearned for a higher degree. Those who had financial support went overseas - to Britain or to universities with the English system of education, outside Nigeria.

Those who did not have the financial means to go overseas for higher education or who were saddled with domestic responsibilities had to be contented with the qualification they had. They were absorbed into educational, administrative, and technical services. Their seeming contentment was, however, short-lived. They were not intellectually inferior to their classmates who had gone overseas, they felt. Poverty, and nothing else, had imposed a temporary halt on their struggle for higher educational qualifications. They had no intention of giving up the struggle. And so many of them sought an outlet to their goal: they sought to achieve, while working and earning at home, the same standards of educational qualification as might be achieved by their classmates who had ventured abroad. The only way open to them, then, was to study by correspondence; and they took it. A few years after their old classmates had returned from overseas, many of these men who studied by correspondence completed their studies, took examinations and passed them at the same level as their old classmates. By working and gaining both experience and promotion, they had crossed the initial salary scale of a graduate before the "been-to's" arrived. Consequently, the

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[2] See L.J. Lewis, Society, Schools & Progress in Nigeria, Pergamon Press, 1965, page 42.

"stay-at-home's", those who studied by correspondence, had the best of the two worlds.

Thus, without being aware of it in those days, the early products of the Yaba Higher College laid the foundation of learning by correspondence. Generations of students after them followed their example. Soon, a tradition of learning by correspondence developed outside but alongside the formal education system. Learning by correspondence became fashionable and within two decades the practice spread to every level of post-primary education.

Correspondence education at lower levels

(a) Grade Two teachers. In the forties, it has been said, there was a moderate expansion of formal education. But the expansion was greater at the primary than at the secondary level. Although primary education was not free, there was such a steep rise between primary- and secondary-education fees that only very few parents could afford to send their children to secondary schools. Bright products of the primary schools - Standard Six Certificate holders - who could not go directly to secondary schools for financial reasons, had to go and work. Many were employed as pupil teachers. Some of these studied by correspondence and successively worked for Junior and Senior Cambridge certificates. Most of the pupil teachers, however, after a few years gained admission to Higher Elementary Teacher Training Colleges, where they trained as senior primary teachers. Teacher education was comparatively very cheap. For example, uniforms, books, tuition and boarding fees for a four-year teacher-training course amounted to one year's fees in a six-year secondary-education course with a very similar educational content.

One fact that emerges from what has just been said is that both the Nigerian pupil teacher and the Higher Elementary (later, Grade Two) teacher were creations of financial necessity. They taught or went into training colleges not because they were particularly interested in the teaching profession *per se*, but because poverty compelled them so to do. If financial means had been available, they would ordinarily have preferred to go in for secondary grammar education and, on obtaining the Cambridge Overseas Certificate, join the Civil Service.

Having completed the teacher-training course, they emerge more independent and self-reliant and more highly motivated and prepared for further studies than contemporary "grammarians". Up to the late fifties, Grade Two certificated teachers formed the largest group of people learning privately by correspondence. While many studied to pass examinations that would up-grade them in the teaching profession, more teachers studied, and continue to study, to qualify for admission to a university. On graduating from a university, they need not continue to teach. Teaching has served its purpose: it has been the stepping stone to higher education. That achieved, teaching can be bidden a long farewell.

(b) *School Certificate students*. Teachers have been given special attention because their situation illustrates *par excellence* the process by which many Nigerian adults take to education through correspondence. But teachers are by no means the only group of people learning through correspondence at this level. There is one other important group: people who attended secondary grammar schools. These may be classified in three sub-groups: the secondary-school drop-outs, secondary-school students in the last two years of their course, and post-school-certificate students. All these have one similar goal: to get a better certificate, or to qualify for higher education. Let us briefly examine these sub-groups in turn from the lowest to the highest.

First, the drop-outs. Poverty, ever dogging the Nigerian student, can be taken for granted as contributing to the failure of many students to complete secondary education. Sometimes there may be inadequate facilities for a full secondary course, and many secondary schools have been obliged to send out many students in their pre-School-Certificate year. The best students in this group usually continue their education by correspondence. Students in this sub-group are now given opportunities to sit for the W.A.S.C. examination as private candidates. On passing, they are awarded the same certificates as internal students.

Secondly, secondary-school students in their penultimate and final years. This is a "hidden" group whose case would interest educational psychologists. It is a group that both annoys headmasters and fascinates them. The members, an underground movement, as it were, take correspondence instruction - precisely self-contained tuition notes - because they feel unsafe with the class teacher. The history of education would seem to justify their fears. Between 1952 and 1960, there was a very great expansion of education in Nigeria.3) In every region there was either a programme of free primary education or an extension of primary education to rural areas, as in the Northern Region. This set off a chain reaction: facilities for secondary, post-secondary, and university education had to be provided and expanded.4) All the new schools needed teachers. There being an acute shortage of teachers, experienced Grade Two teachers, who had been trained to teach in primary schools, were sent to teach in secondary schools. The students had their fears, real or imaginary. Feeling that their background in some subjects was shaky, many intelligent students in secondary schools would take tuition notes and secretly study them while turning up for

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3) See Appendices A-E for the rate of expansion.

4) By 1960, education was treated as an investment and the largest single vote of the budget went to education.

formal class-room lessons.

The practice of augmenting formal instruction with correspondence instruction continues today for other reasons than lack of confidence in the class teacher. Many students like to kill two birds with one stone. While taking formal class-room instruction in preparation for the West African School Certificate (W.A.S.C.), many students take correspondence instruction preparing them for the General Certificate of Education at the Ordinary Level (G.C.E. O/L). It is an open secret that Nigerian secondary-school leavers sit for the G.C.E. O/L in January, just a few weeks after leaving the W.A.S.C. examination hall.

Because facilities for sixth-form (Higher School Certificate or H.S.C.) education were limited, many W.A.S.C. holders had to take jobs. Some of these, on getting the fare, went overseas - mainly to Great Britain - in the fifties. There, like the students, based in Nigeria, they continued their studies as private students, working to keep body and soul together. Appendix F, category b, shows that of those based at home the number who made headway to the University of Ibadan was substantial. Whether at home or abroad, Nigerian private students make use of correspondence instruction.

Sixth-formers in Nigeria continue the practice of augmenting oral with correspondence instruction. This time they study for the G.C.E. at the Advanced Level (A/L), alongside their regular class work leading to the H.S.C. Sometimes they study subjects other than those formally offered in the H.S.C. course, but often they study the same subjects. They do so in order to make sure that the required qualification is obtained at all costs. And, in a way, the students' foresight pay. The West African Examinations Council conducts these examinations in co-operation with the University of London. The results are standardised. A G.C.E. O/L is equivalent to a credit at the School Certificate Level. For admission to a university, besides the requirement for O/L subjects, candidates are expected to have passed in at least two subjects in the H.S.C. or in the G.C.E. at the Advanced Level. An aggregate of three passes at both the H.S.C. and the G.C.E. A/L could serve the same purpose. Many candidates shown in Appendix F, category b, belong to this group. Both formal and correspondence instruction helped them in their struggle for the good certificate required for a good job or for admission to a university.

Whether taken at lower, intermediate or higher levels of education, correspondence instruction serves as a remover of economic, social and geographical obstacles to learning. It functions as a leveller, bringing together in one common examination room those who have opportunities for formal education and those who have been deprived of such opportunities. "The General Certificate of Education makes everybody equal" is a common saying in Nigeria. Besides the three branches of the Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology (now absorbed or upgraded into three universities) and the Federal Emergency Science Centre, which formally prepare candidates for the G.C.E., preparation for that examination is through private work by self-tuition notes.

Factors facilitating correspondence education

Foremost among the factors that lead Nigerians to study by correspondence is an ever-present strong motivation to obtain a certificate. Sustained motivation, then, facilitates learning by correspondence.

Another facilitating factor is the nature and content of education, especially at the secondary level. Until quite recently, the syllabus of Nigerian secondary schools was modelled on that of Britain. Cambridge University, rather than Nigerian schoolmasters, had the last say on the results of the School Certificate. Once the syllabus was set, correspondence houses based in Britain prepared tuition on the courses. Students could "buy" these tuition notes and use them for preparing for the Cambridge School Certificate examination. The same thing could be said about the G.C.E., except that the examining body in this case is the University of London. Foreign course-writers are believed to know the demands of foreign examiners.

As from the first year of secondary education, English is the medium of instruction for all subjects. Mastery of the English language makes easy private education by tuition.

The awareness that equal recognition is given to certificates gained either through correspondence instruction or through conventional education is a factor that makes correspondence instruction attractive. It is a less costly way of acquiring knowledge at all levels of education.

Finally, the overseas-based correspondence schools that serve the Nigerian adult are highly reputed. The courses they supply give value for money. Their tuition notes are usually very well written, and make intelligible reading - unlike some text-books. Besides, the notes often include model questions and answers. These may be so comprehensive in coverage as to form the nuclei of answers in the real examination. Many Nigerians so believe in the efficacy of these doses of model answers that they swallow them wholesale. The doses perform the trick, and many adult learners who can slightly adapt what has been mechanically learnt pass the examinations and obtain the required certificate. Many Nigerian law and accountancy or secretaryship students studying in Britain have, through painful experience, come to realise that this trick does not always work outside West Africa. It is regrettable to observe that much of what passes for "education" in Nigeria is rote learning, an uncritical memorization of facts. As years pass by, the memorized material gets eroded. The certificate remains, but the mind may have undergone little or no "sea change".

The nature of existing correspondence instruction in Nigeria

From what has been said thus far, it may be understood that Nigerians taking correspondence courses have one common goal: to pass an examination and possess a certificate which can be presented to employers for a job or for a promotion or else to registrars for admission to an institution of higher learning. Having clearly defined his objectives, the Nigerian adult studying through correspondence adopts the method that is most conducive to the attainment of his goal.

Correspondence schools make provision for a two-way communication. For both practical and economic reasons, however, Nigerians prefer to "buy" self-contained tuition notes. These come in a bundle on the full payment of the cost. After that there is little contact between the school and the student.

From this short survey of the pre-admission qualifications of direct-entry students of the University of Ibadan (Appendix F), it should be noted that the popular field of operation of the correspondence schools is in arts. Such subjects as history, English literature, British economic history, geography, economics, British constitution and religious studies - in various combinations passed at the Advanced Level in the G.C.E. - form the foundation. The reasons are not hard to find. Until recent years emphasis was given to arts rather than science in Nigeria. Science subjects need laboratories and practical work. The correspondence schools are physically too distant to put up laboratories, not to mention their possible wariness about excursions into less profitable ventures.

New possibilities

Correspondence education in science is a field that lies fallow. The University of Ibadan is planning to open up this field. A pilot project in which a university preliminary syllabus in science subjects would be taught by correspondence is to be launched. University lecturers in the Department of Science will work jointly with those in the Department of Adult Education to operate the scheme. The correspondent students will make use of the University science laboratories for supervised practical lessons. When the plan materialises, hundreds of potential science students will be served, and the success of the project may also lead to the establishment of a correspondence school operated in Nigeria. Such a school would establish a two-way correspondence with its students. It would provide opportunities for oral instruction during practical work in the laboratories.

APPENDIX A

Enrolment in primary schools, 1952-63 (in thousands).

Year	Northern Region	Eastern Region	Western Region	Lagos	All of Nigeria
1952	122.1	518.9	400.0 1)	2)	1,041.0
1953	142.5	572.7	429.5	2)	1,144.7
1954	153.7	664.7	456.6	2)	1,275.0
1955	168.5	742.6	811.4	37.0	1,759.5
1956	185.5	904.2	908.0	38.6	2,036.3
1957	205.8	1,209.2	982.7	50.2	2.447.9
1958	229.1	1,221.5	1,037.4	56.7	2,544.7
1959	250.9	1,378.4	1,080.3	66.3	2,775.9
1960	282.8	1,430.5	1,124.8	74.5	2,912.6
1961	316.2	1,274.4	1,131.4	81.8	2,803.8
1962	359.9	1,266.6	1,109.0	98.5	2,834.0
1963	410.7	1,278.7	1,099.4	107.6	2,896.4

Notes

1) Estimated.
2) Lagos was part of the Western Region.

Sources

Federal and regional annual reports and statistical abstracts.

Note: Appendices A - E show the expansion of education facilities in Nigeria between 1952 and 1963 inclusive. These figures are taken from A. Callaway & A. Musone, Financing of Education in Nigeria, Unesco Institute for Educational Planning, 1968.

APPENDIX B

Enrolment in secondary schools, 1952-63 (in thousands).

Year	Northern Region	Eastern Region 1)	Western Region Grammar 2)	Western Region Modern	Lagos	All of Nigeria
1952	1.9	8.6	6.5 3)	-	0.3 3)	17.3
1953	2.1	9.2	7.3	-	0.3 3)	18.9
1954	2.4	9.5	9.3	-	0.3 3)	21.5
1955	2.7	10.6	10.9	4.4	2.6	31.2
1956	3.3	11.0	12.6	12.8	2.8 3)	42.5
1957	3.7	12.2	16.2	30.6	2.9 3)	63.6
1958	4.1	14.0	18.9	43.5	3.1	83.6
1959	4.7	15.8	22.7	64.2	3.3 3)	110.7
1960	6.3	18.3	26.1	75.1	3.6	129.4
1961	6.5	21.3	29.8	98.9	4.7	161.2
1962	8.0	27.6	34.5	110.3	5.5	185.9
1963	9.9	34.7	39.9	110.8	5.7	201.0

Notes

1) Excluding commercial modern schools.

2) Including commercial schools.

3) Estimated.

Sources

Federal and regional annual reports and statistical abstracts.

APPENDIX C

Enrolment in teacher-training colleges, 1952-63.

Year	Northern Region	Eastern Region	Western Region	Lagos	All of Nigeria
1952	1,794	2,509	---	-	---
1953	1,942	---	---	-	---
1954	1,924	---	4,991	---	---
1955	1,946	---	6,752	43	---
1956	2,314	8,356	9,140	---	---
1957	2,562	---	10,446	129	---
1958	3,047	11,069	10,737	207	25,058
1959	3,254	11,772	10,992	434	26,452
1960	4,112	12,013	11,265	476	27,866
1961	4,668	11,987	12,218	563	29,436
1962	6,183	11,158	12,779	591	30,711
1963	7,773	10,685	12,818	780	32,056

Notes

- Not applicable.

--- Data not available.

Sources

Federal and regional reports and statistical abstracts.

APPENDIX D

Enrolment in government technical and vocational institutions, 1952-63.[1)]

Year	Northern Region	Eastern Region	Western Region	Lagos	All of Nigeria
1952	137	162	-	402	701
1953	309	---	-	---	---
1954	535	---	-	---	---
1955	643	---	-	605	---
1956	737	---	-	---	---
1957	872	---	---	---	---
1958	965	---	---	795	---
1959	1,309	283	148	830	2,570
1960	2,012	381	194	999	3,586
1961	2,404	470	454	962	4,287
1962	2,608	522	736	956	4,822
1963	2,658	659	770[2)]	1,142	5,229

Notes

1) Full-time students only.

2) Excluding Midwestern Region.

- Not applicable.

--- Data not available.

Sources

Federal and regional annual reports and statistical abstracts.

APPENDIX E

Enrolment in universities and higher institutions, academic years 1952/53 to 1963/64.

Academic year	University College, Ibadan	NCAST[1]	University of Nigeria, Nsukka	Ahmadu Bells University	University of Ife	University of Lagos	Total
1952/53	368						
1953/54	407						
1954/55	476						
1955/56	523						
1956/57	563						
1957/58	754	701					1,455
1958/59	940	866					1,806
1959/60	1,024	1,088					2,112
1960/61	1,136	1,050	259				2,445
1961/62	1,504	722	905				3,128
1962/63	1,688	-	1,148	426	244	100	3,606
1963/64	2,016	-	1,828	558	475	271	5,148

Notes

1) Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology (with branches in Ibadan, Enugu and Zaria), including the Faculty of Engineering sponsored by University College, Ibadan.

- Not applicable.

--- Data not available.

Sources

University reports and federal statistical abstracts.

APPENDIX F

A classification in four categories of direct-entry students of the University of Ibadan over five academic sessions.

Categories

a. Higher School Certificate.

b. West African School Certificate and General Certificate of Education at the Advanced Level.

c. Higher Elementary (Grade Two) certificated teachers with three G.C.E. subjects at Advanced Level.

d. W.A.S.C., plus a pass in the concessional entrance examination.

Faculty	1962/63				1963/64				1964/65				1965/66				1966/67			
	a	b	c	d	a	b	c	d	a	b	c	d	a	b	c	d	a	b	c	d
1. Arts	59	32	56	17	72	27	49	7	85	30	70	25	103	37	33	17	72	36	57	45
2. Education	-	5	23	-	7	7	15	1	8	4	37	-	22	26	32	-	15	13	36	3
3. Social Sciences (Econ. & Sociology)	17	13	19	4	30	10	19	-	50	15	51	-	27	23	48	-	20	21	54	-
4. Science	46	42	6	37	69	46	1	21	93	31	3	34	111	53	1	31	66	45	5	66
5. Medicine	22	2	1	23	47	6	-	22	52	6	1	29	46	20	-	40	49	12	-	39
6. Agriculture	17	14	-	12	22	14	-	14	36	16	-	13	37	23	-	30	62	29	1	10

APPENDIX G

Category C (Appendix F) candidates as a percentage of the total admissions to various faculties.

	1962/63	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67
Arts	34	33.3	33.3	17.4	27
Education	82.1	50	75.5	40	53.7
Social Sciences	37.7	32.5	43	49	47
Science	4.6	0.8	1.9	0.6	2.8
Medicine	2	-	1	0	0
Agriculture	0	0	0	0	1

Note

None of the candidates in this group had any secondary-grammar educational background. Ten were Grade III certificated teachers. Four had a secondary-modern-school background. There were two outstanding students whose formal educational background was an eight-year primary schooling. The rest were teachers with Higher Elementary (Grade II) teacher-training and certificates. It is taken for granted that all these candidates studied privately, using correspondence instruction.

Category B candidates are not included here. They have secondary grammar education. Many of them attended H.S.C. courses or the Federal Science Emergency School at Lagos, but failed at the first attempt and passed later as private candidates.

The figures in Appendix F were compiled by going through the admission records of each candidate admitted to the University of Ibadan in the academic sessions indicated.

THE PURPOSE AND CONTENT OF UNIVERSITY ADULT EDUCATION IN GHANA

by Eric Adzetey Mensah

1. Introduction

Adult education differs from country to country, according to each country's history, traditions and stage of economic, social and educational development, Although adult educators have often disagreed on the nature of adult education, there are certain elements that are now accepted and may be selected for emphasis. Firstly, it is pursued voluntarily by adults. Secondly, it must be purposeful. And thirdly, it must be socially meaningful.

Adult education is organized at different levels according to the nature of the need. Thus, in Ghana, several programmes may fit into the above description, but our main concern here is a university-based system of adult education provided by the Institute of Adult Education of the University of Ghana for the continuing education of literate adults.

2. Early purpose

University adult education was established in 1948 on the traditional pattern of the extra-mural work of Oxford University in the United Kingdom. The purpose was to cultivate a substantial number of ordinary people with sound judgement, who could think realistically and constructively about their own society, and so play a responsible part in public affairs. In short, to borrow a popular phrase, to teach the educated minority "how to think and not what to think".

The work was started during a crucial period in the country's history, when political agitation for independence was gathering momentum and rapid constitutional advances were being made. It is difficult to assess the results of this type of activity in quantitative terms, but it is interesting to observe that after the first general elections in 1951, one-third of the members of the Legislative Assembly were noted to have been members of extra-mural classes or Peoples' Educational Association branch officials. The 1951-52 Report of the Institute modestly states that, although it could not be claimed that it had been the inspiration of all these, it was only fair to suggest that extra-mural work helped to create the beginning of an informed public opinion among the electorate and stimulated a few to take active part in public affairs.

3. Content

The purpose of the Institute, as outlined above, was pursued mainly through the liberal form of adult education. Classes were organized in subjects such as history, politics, sociology, economics, English language and literature as well as labour studies for leaders of the Labour Movement. Each class consisted of about 20 - 30 adults, meeting once a week, and was conducted by a graduate tutor, who was a government official, a secondary-school tutor or an internal university lecturer. A typical class in a small village included the teacher, the local shop-owner, the clerk of the council, the minister of religion, the postmaster and the local political party officials. These classes were not oriented towards any examination and no certificates were awarded, but some participants nevertheless used the opportunity to pass certain public examinations.

The Institute supplemented this programme with a wide range of residential schools - from one-day to fortnightly schools. At these schools, a central theme was chosen and participants divided into groups to discuss various aspects of the theme. The residential schools have now become national institutions to which many people look forward each year. One of these schools was recently organized on the constitutional proposals for a new Constitution for Ghana.

4. A re-appraisal

It has already been mentioned that the pattern of work was based on the Oxford model and perhaps the purpose pursued in the early years justified the use of this pattern. The question now is whether the pattern of university-based adult education which was conditioned by the original purpose still holds good or whether the situation has now changed and perhaps requires the adoption of new objectives. The content of courses or programmes will no doubt be dictated by the aims and objectives and we may therefore discuss the areas in which university-based adult education could function in the present circumstances.

Firstly, it is suggested that Ghana needs at present an informed electorate that can exercise political responsibility. Experience has shown that the best way of doing this is the provision of courses of a liberal nature and that, although something was done in this direction in the past, the Institute failed to keep it up for one reason or another. This purpose is mentioned first because it is only in an atmosphere of political stability or peace and quiet that all other things can be feasible and it is therefore advocated here that any activity that would promote good government should be given the necessary support as a matter of priority. The number of participants attracted to such courses will naturally be small, but a look at the type of participants attracted shows that they will be the leaders in the community. In a society which is predominantly illiterate, it is important that the literate few, who find themselves leading the vast majority, should be equipped to think rationally about public affairs. After all, from this category of the population came the politicians who controlled Ghana for fifteen years and might again play an important role in public affairs. Although they are few, their influence starts a chain reaction or has a multiple effect for good or ill.

The second area of activity in which the University might engage more fully is formal adult education. Today, in addition to the liberal studies, programmes and residential schools, courses of a purely utilitarian nature which fall into this category are organized, leading to the General Certificate of Education (Ordinary or Advanced Levels), Certificates in Accounting and Secretaryship as well as the External Degrees of the University of Ghana. During the 1966-67 session, for example, these courses formed about 70 % of the total number of classes organized by the Institute.

Much more remains to be done in this field and the University will have to change its attitude as to the unsuitability of formal education for university-based adult education. This prejudice against anything which is certificate-oriented has been inherited largely from the British tradition, where it is considered in certain quarters that organization is improper and that the proper function of the university is only to organize liberal-studies classes. It is sometimes forgotten that even in Britain there is a "wind of change" blowing in the extra-mural departments and that some of them now offer examinable courses. In a country where, in the past five years or so, only an average of 20 % of the students who sat for examinations for entry into secondary schools were found places, and where very limited opportunities for further formal education exist for adults, it is perhaps only reasonable that this form of adult education should be fully accepted in university circles without any reservations until other agencies - private or governmental - are established to take over or share the burden. The value attached to paper qualifications as a yardstick of one's ability is so great that it is equitable to give adults who have missed the opportunity for one reason or another to make the attempt at least. The Universities of Trinidad and Tobago and Ibadan are among those universities where the British tradition has had much influence but they have now fully accepted this kind of activity and are actively engaged in it.

It is gratifying to note that gradually a breakthrough is being made in the provision of some formal adult education and the University of Ghana has just agreed to the introduction of a Certificate of Adult Studies which would be equivalent to the GCE (AL) Certificate academically and would not be so much oriented towards school subjects. The idea is not only to provide examinable courses but also to provide some liberal education as well and much therefore will depend on the way and manner in which the course content is planned and organized in the various centres.

Thirdly, a national programme of re-training for teachers, clerks and executives, to raise their productive abilities, is suggested. Primary- and middle-school education have been developed at such a terrific rate that some standards have been lowered in the process and caused the so-called problem of the middle-school leaver. The young men have received so much education that they do not want to work in the traditional sector of the economy. One of the causes of this situation is perhaps the system itself, which in a way is not related to the demands of the economy and has therefore created structural unemployment. Ironically, the young men have neither enough education to find employment in the modern sector nor the skills required of them.

Obviously, other adult-education agencies will have to handle a lot of the remedial work on the lower rungs of the ladder, but university-based adult education might deal with another aspect of the problem, i.e. the improvement of the efficiency of the teachers, of whom 68 % in the primary and middle schools, 55 % in the secondary schools and 60 % in the training colleges are untrained. Fortunately, teachers are very much attracted by the Institute's programmes but often drop out, perhaps because their motivation is not strong enough. The co-operation of the Ministry of Education could therefore be sought in recognizing the efforts of teachers who might participate in whatever courses the Institute might be able to organize, so that such recognition might act as an incentive and thus ensure a fuller impact on the academic abilities of the teachers.

The shortage of efficient middle-management and supervisory personnel can also cause unemployment, as the amount of unskilled or skilled labour that can be employed is limited by this shortage. There is a growing body of people in these grades with little formal education who have worked their way into responsible positions and it is important for this vital group, on whom so much depends, to be trained to be more efficient in the posts they now occupy. Many of them are very busy people who cannot easily get away from their desks or workshops, but again, the co-operation of employers might be enlisted for a programme of day-release courses which would be job-oriented to make these courses meaningful to the participants.

5. The place of correspondence education

The difficulties that will be encountered in mounting a programme such as the one outlined above are numerous, but the greatest is perhaps the unavailability of teachers. Fortunately, course procedure education is to be adopted as a teaching method as from the 1969/70 academic session and this should minimise the problems immensely. Here, again, the prejudice against correspondence education as an effective means of teaching, created mainly by the methods used by commercial institutions operating in Ghana, will have to be corrected. The effectiveness and acceptability of this medium of instruction for practically every subject, such as is found in the Scandinavian countries and some other parts of the world, shows that, if it is well planned, half the battle will have been won.

6. Conclusion

Historically, organized adult education has had and continues to have many purposes. Throughout its history, the principal purpose has been to provide education for the educationally handicapped. In Ghana, it is unlikely that our present arrangements will provide the opportunities that adult seek for their education, as far as formal education is concerned. Coupled with the several social, economic and political problems that the country faces, the tasks of university-based adult education are bewildering and the purposes outlined above are just an attempt to select priorities, in order to avoid a superficial approach. The content of programmes may therefore have to change with the times.

The need for some form of concrete evidence of achievement by the acquisition of paper qualifications justifies the provision of classes leading to certificates. However, important as the gap-filling or formal type of adult education and the retraining programme suggested above may be, these tasks must be regarded as temporary, as the need may diminish - no matter how long it takes - or some other institutions may come into the field in the future to help and thus leave the University to pioneer in new fields. In a developing country such as ours, it is perhaps the only institution that can do this.

The gap-filling tasks should not therefore make us forget the pursuit of what, it is suggested, should be the ultimate purpose of adult education in Ghana, that is, the continuing education of the adult in the development of the qualities of his mind, so that he can exercise his civic responsibilities intelligently - an education which necessarily belongs to adult life. Our experience has shown that only informed and intelligent citizens who can exercise political responsibility can create an atmosphere of intelligent co-operation in the implementation of plans for social and economic development - perhaps the two most important conditions which must be present in any country to ensure progress.

HOW CAN CORRESPONDENCE INSTRUCTION BE USED IN CO-OPERATIVE EDUCATION IN TANZANIA?

by G E Kagaruki

The nature of a co-operative movement in any country, and not least in Tanzania, demands a lively education programme. The members who form the real foundation of the whole co-operative structure need to be well informed of the movement's activities and problems. They also need an opportunity to discuss and find solutions to the problems. In this way the co-operative movement will live. The employees, too, need to be trained in their different lines, for it is they who are the executives. Thus, continuous educational activity, both for the members and the employees, becomes essential, since the co-operative movement is always undergoing changes of growth.

In Tanzania the movement's expansion, both horizontally and vertically, has been immense during the 34 years of its existence. There were 12 registered societies in the beginning of 1933 in one corner of the country, in Kilimanjaro. By 1961 the figure had grown to 760 and now barely six years later the figure has more than doubled to 1600 co-operative societies. Originally the task of the societies was the marketing of agricultural produce, and societies were scattered all over the country in complete isolation, either as individual primary or secondary societies. The situation of isolation came to an end in 1961, when all the major secondary societies formed the Co-operative Union of Tanganyika (CUT), the apex national parliamentary organization. The new phase brought with it new developments in the movement, such as the feeling of togetherness and the need to enter into new fields of activity which would offer more services to the members, for example, banking, the provision of loan facilities, and the re-organisation of small co-operative units into larger ones. The future trend is toward multi-purpose societies. According to this new way of thinking, a primary society should cater for all the economic needs of its members - marketing, provision of loans, provision of savings facilities, and supply of agricultural and other consumer goods. In order to attain all these goals, a lot of re-organising has to take place. The new activities demand new skills. At the same time the need to inform the members will increase, for the new fields demand more capital and thus the understanding of the members must also be secured. In the face of the above facts there is need of a continuous training and retraining of employees and of keeping the members regularly informed and also activated all the time. It is in this first instance that I see the need for the use of correspondence instruction in the co-operative education system in Tanzania.

The present co-operative educational facilities

The present educational facilities consist of a) the Co-operative College, b) the Co-operative Education Centre, c) the Co-operative Journal, and d) the publicity activities of the Co-operative Union of Tanganyika.

The Co-operative College. This is a government-owned institution designed to organize residential courses, which fall at present into three categories:

(i) A 3-month-long course for secretaries of primary societies in Swahili. There are three courses a year, for which the maximum annual intake is 80 students.

(ii) An intermediate course of between three and five months' duration for mainly training government inspectors, the co-operative departmental staff which supervises and inspects societies' books of accounts. The annual intake varies between 60 and 90 students, depending on whether the courses last for three or five months. Sometimes the course participants may be half government inspectors and half inspectors employed by the co-operative societies themselves. Also now and again non-inspectorial staff are recruited on this course, both to follow up the course syllabus and to devote some 6 to 8 hours a week to studying their specialized lines.

(iii) The advanced course, lasting for nine months. The annual intake is between 20 and 30 students. Participants in this course are recruited from among senior officers in the co-operative department and also from the co-operative movement. Course subjects deal with co-operative principles and practices, commerce, management, arithmetic and civics.

The College was established at the end of 1963 and its total annual intake will in future be between 180 and 220 students. It has to cater for both the government staff and the staff from the co-operative movement at the same time. The course fees range between £85 and £200 per student, depending on the length of the course. The College has a tutorial staff of ten.

The Co-operative Education Centre. This institution was started in 1964 and I have previously written about its work. Whereas the Co-operative College undertakes central residential training, the Co-operative Education Centre works to promote local co-operative education among mainly the primary agricultural marketing societies, numbering about 1450. Strengthening the foundations of the primary societies automatically means also the strengthening of the 51 marketing unions to which the primaries are affiliated. As such, the Centre carries out the educational work in co-operation with the unions themselves through an established organisational system of co-operative education secretaries appointed by the unions. The Centre is the educational arm of the Co-operative Union of Tanganyika (CUT).

There are three main channels by which the centre transmits its educational programmes.

(i) Through oral local courses. One-day and week-long courses. So far, it is the latter type on which the greatest emphasis has been placed. Such week-long courses have been conducted in all but two marketing unions.

(ii) Through discussion manuals in co-ordination with radio programmes. This new method was launched in January 1967. The discussion programmes centred around radio broadcasts and the co-ordinated discussion manuals are designed to stimulate the formation of discussion groups consisting of the members and their committeemen in the primary societies.

(iii) Through correspondence courses. So far, the Centre has published three short courses. The first is a basic course for primary societies' employees in the agricultural-marketing sector. The second is a course in savings and credit societies and a third is a course in elementary book-keeping. The course fees are 20, 5 and 10 shillings respectively.

The Co-operative Journal and the publicity activities of the Co-operative Union

The Journal is published monthly and its purpose is to inform the members and general public of co-operative events and other matters which are considered to be of interest to the members. The publicity section is particularly for writing small leaflets and pamphlets on matters of co-operative interest and importance at such times as the need arises and also for mounting co-operative exhibitions at national festivals.

While we acknowledge the need for co-operative publicity, it remains, however, that the College and the Centre are the main channels through which long-term educational programming is possible.

The task ahead of the two institutions is still highly demanding. As I have already pointed out, there are 1450 primary marketing societies, 51 marketing unions of various kinds and also new societies of various kinds - consumers' co-operatives, savings and credit societies, and industrial societies - altogether totalling over 1600. This number is increasing day by day.

The primary societies

For the primaries, if we assume that each primary society has two employees, this means a total number of 3000 employees. In actual fact, there are more than two employees. In a marketing primary society, for example, the following personnel are to be found: the secretary, assistant secretary, one or two clerks and a store-keeper. Thus, in actual fact it is safer to estimate that the number of employees is between 3000 and 6000.

It is a custom in Tanzania that a committee of ten is elected in each primary society. This means an addition of 15,500 committeemen to be trained in how to supervise their societies and how to lead their fellow members.

Last but not least, come the members in hundreds of thousands. For statistical purposes it is reckoned that the co-operative movement in Tanzania has a registered membership of 800,000 members. But this is only a representative figure, for the 1450 primary marketing societies handle produce from all farmers. In actual fact, the whole farming population forms the basis of the co-operative membership. Thus, when it comes to the question of members' education, for us in Tanzania this is a question of how to reach all the farmers. Thus, the figure no longer remains at 800,000; it extends to millions.

The marketing unions

The unions rank in three categories - large, medium-sized and small unions. The size is determined by various factors, such as the number of its affiliates, its area of operation, the volume of produce it handles and the additional activities it may be carrying on, such as tractor services, processing, supply of agricultural requirements or stationery, etc. In future, as the primary societies are re-organised to form multi-purpose societies, the unions, too, will re-organise themselves so as to cater for the needs of their affiliated societies.

At present, on the average, the union staff comprises the following: a manager, a secretary-treasurer, an accountant (assisted by one or two book-keepers), a co-operative education secretary, a union inspector and a store-keeper for the union's godowns. If you multiply the 51 unions by six, the result is a figure of 300 employees, split up in six different categories of functions. That means that their training has to be specialized. In addition, some unions have more activities, such as tractor services, in which case a tractor supervisor is employed - he too needs a specialized training. Not only that but that some unions are owners of ginning and curing plants, with another set of employees. As the unions begin new functions of a multi-purpose nature, they will certainly need to employ and train new employees, as well as re-train the old ones.

Correspondence instruction and members' education

In summarizing the work of the Co-operative Education Centre, I pointed out that the Centre has launched a members' educational programme using correspondence material - the discussion manuals - in co-ordination with radio broadcasts. This programme is scheduled to cover the 52 weeks of the year 1967. The purpose of the programme is to introduce the co-operative movement's ideology. It is therefore a general programme, describing various aspects and certain general activities of the co-operatives and drawing much attention to the common problems. Thus, each weekly programme always ends with two questions to be answered by the listening discussion group. The answers are sent to the Centre to be marked and commented upon.

As we set out to launch this programme, much discussion arose in the Centre. At whom, for instance, were we aiming - the farmers in general or the committeemen? After much consideration we agreed that we were aiming at the interested and leading farmers. We chose these words with much care. First of all, as I mentioned earlier, we consider all farmers as members of the primary societies, whether or not they are registered in the books, for if they are not registered as persons, their produce deliveries are registered. So if they are not yet registered, it is because they are not properly informed and we know from experience that new members have a great desire for co-operative information but that nobody seems to supply it. They are indeed potential future co-operative leaders, once they have been carefully taught. Also some of the registered members are very much interested in taking a more active part in the affairs of their societies, but they lack the opportunities.

The present committeemen are not ipso facto necessarily the best leaders of the societies. The quality of the committemen depends very much upon the quality of the understanding of the members who elect them. If the members are well informed and actively interested in the affairs of their societies, they will be very careful in electing their committees; they will also take care that the committees fulfil their duties. On the other hand, if the members are not well informed about their societies, they tend to be disinterested in the societies and in most cases they look upon the staff and committeemen as being a different group of people - an elite. If this state of affairs predominates, as, indeed, it not uncommonly does, the following course of events is likely to happen. The committeemen find that the members are not satisfied with them. They, too, become disinterested in their work and eventually slacken in their efforts. Thus, the prospective members - the unregistered farmers as well as the interested members - also become discouraged. Such a situation would not occur in societies in which opportunities for discussion have been created.

These were indeed the thoughts that were at the back of our minds in planning this new programme - not for the committeemen nor for the registered members alone but for the "interested" and "leading" farmers. We wanted to give this group a chance to participate actively in creative thinking for their societies. This is the opportunity our people have been looking forward to. Thus, we are not expecting the entire farming population - that would be building castles in the air - but the interested farmers. What is wanted is careful organisation in the unions, so that they in turn will organise the primary societies in such a way that the interested farmers are reached. One union and several other primary societies in various parts of the republic have almost succeeded in this already. Their success depends very much upon the activity and wisdom of the co-operative education secretaries.

We expect that towards the end of the year there will be a few permanent groups for which our task will be to organise training courses for the group leaders.

So far the manuals are not to exceed four A5-pages and we are endeavouring to improve the readability of the manuals by presenting the facts in a few carefully chosen words. The reason for this is that the reading ability of most of our farmers is not so high and we would like to make the reading easier for them. The next stage envisaged is to introduce into the discussion manuals much more interesting topics, such as those dealing with production, and other special economic matters concerning the life of the members.

By means of group discussions and the increasing use of one-day courses, we hope that members' education will expand and improve in Tanzania. In future it will also be necessary to produce special manuals for the committeemen, which they will study in supervised week-long courses.

There are, of course, various reasons for and advantages in the use of correspondence instruction in the promotion of members' education. As the Hon. A Babu, our previous Minister for Co-operatives and Commerce, once put it, Tanzania is an ocean. By that he meant that Tanzania is a large country, with vast distances from north to south and from east to west, with an area of over 361,800 square miles or, in other words, twice the area of Sweden. Thus, if all educational activity were carried on through oral teaching and if all areas were to be satisfied at once, it would mean the employment of a very large and permanent staff. This is not economically possible for Tanzania nor is it sensible when short cuts are available. It could be argued that instead a mobile unit should be used. Again the mobile unit has its limitations. It cannot cater for the whole country at the same time. It has taken the mobile unit of the Centre more than two years to run week-long courses in the unions and we have only reached a small fraction of the whole. Moreover, if you are on the move all the time, you have no time to prepare your lectures properly - the work becomes just routine repetition - a real drudgery! Besides, it is also rather expensive.

Through the introduction of correspondence-instruction material, the work is rather simplified and improved. The educational activity easily becomes continuous. When the written material produced is spread over a large number of students, it also becomes comparatively cheaper.

Staff-training and correspondence instruction

So far, correspondence instruction has been used very little in training our co-operative-moment personnel and the governmental staff. One fundamental reason is that correspondence instruction has not been practised to any appreciable extent in Tanzania or in the neighbouring countries. And yet another reason is simply that the movement has not long been on its own. It has always been nursed by the government. As long as the government managed somehow to train its staff, either at home or abroad, it did not bother very much about the growing needs for the movement. It is considered even now that one of the duties of the co-operative department is education. That is, the department staff should teach the staff of the co-operative societies and unions. And lastly it must be borne in mind that the movement at home grew up under a colonial regime. Our present government - our own government - young as it is, has been so busy gaining its own experience that it, too, has been satisfied with the tradition it inherited from its predecessor. It is mainly for these reasons that training by correspondence has not yet achieved the desired growth or importance, either on the overall national level or in some specific in-service-training branches, such as the co-operative-training line.

I feel there are strong reasons for exploiting the use of correspondence instruction - not only in training staff for the co-operative sector - and that this mode of education will enter into many of our national education activities. However, my task is to show how correspondence instruction could be used in our co-operative staff-training and for the purposes of this paper I will restrict myself to staff-training within the co-operative movement alone.

1. Staff-training among primary societies. I have estimated the number of employees falling in this category as being between 3000 and 6000. Assuming that the activities of all the primary societies are the same, we would still need to train the various members of the staff differently. We would need specialized courses for secretaries and at least store-keepers. It is also clear that residential courses at the College would not manage to cater for all the 3000 employees, not to mention the 6000, even by offering them the same course. It thus goes without saying that, unless something else is done, there will be a group of employees who will never get to the College and

will therefore continue to work by rule of thumb and will eventually become frustrated. That is one case!

The second case is as strong as the first. The primary societies, particularly in the agricultural sector, have to gradually increase their activities, from purely marketing to catering for all the other economic needs of the farmer. This means that the primaries will be growing bigger and bigger and therefore requiring more and more capable men.

So much for the marketing societies. There is a growing number of a new type of primary societies - consumer co-operatives. In the taped message I received a few days ago, the Consumer Adviser mentioned that the number of consumer co-operatives has now gone up to 60. The number of primary savings and loan societies is also in the region of 80. There are again a number of industrial societies.

The courses published by the Co-operative Education Centre are just the bare minimum. The primary-societies course is mainly designed for secretaries. Thus, even marketing societies require supplementary branch courses for those not working in the same capacity. There is, for instance, after No. 5 of this course the need to introduce a branch course for store-keepers. And several other branch courses are needed as a result of more activities being gradually introduced into the primary societies.

Separate courses for credit-union and consumer-society officials will soon be in demand. The failure of previous attempts to establish consumer co-operatives has particularly made the government insist upon training for consumer societies.

Does this mean that the College will no longer be wanted? On the contrary, its service of residential courses will also be much in request. However, with the introduction of more and more specialized correspondence courses, the part to be played by the College will necessarily change. The courses at the College will have to be comparatively shorter and more concentrated, so as to allow many different groups to be catered for. I therefore foresee an emerging new training system, in which correspondence and short residential courses will be complementary.

2. Staff-training in marketing unions and other secondary societies. In the field of higher staff-training there is not very much that both the Centre and the College offer. This is thus an open field, to which the College will have to devote its time, in order to remedy the situation.

Here, as I mentioned earlier, there are at least six categories of high officials in the 51 unions for which specialized training is needed. Only some few lucky officers have been trained on various overseas scholarships. But we cannot depend on overseas scholarships to cater for the growing educational needs of our own movement. The government, too, is now quite aware of this educational gap for the higher officials in the unions and is also aware that this gap is causing great damage to the efficiency of the unions. At one time it considered dissolving its own department, in order to let its own staff go into the unions, but that would not have filled the gap for a long time, as the government staff are not themselves specially trained for all the jobs. It would, at the same time, have left the government without its supervisory staff. This being so, the government is now looking abroad to friendly nations to supply us with experts to work as advisers, in order to strengthen the unions. For this reason also, the government has recommended a unified co-operative service, at least on temporary terms, for the employees in marketing unions.

The unions are, as it were, the pillars of the entire movement. They are the organs through which better service can be provided for the members of primary societies. They are the bargaining agents of the primary societies in business, and the members' representatives in the national organisation. Through them, the members are able to direct their collective ownership into meaningful possession of processing plants and of servicing bodies, such as the Co-operative Bank. It is through the unions that the members hope to secure the services of well-trained and expensive personnel, as well as to benefit from the advantages of skilled planning. Thus, the unions occupy a really central position in the whole co-operative structure.

The country's new development plans based upon the Arusha Declaration, so far as rural economic development is concerned, largely rest upon the shoulders of the unions. The catering for the various economic needs envisaged in primary societies has to be administered through the unions if it is to meet with success. This issue, too, adds to the training and re-training needs of the unions.

And the major problem is actually that it is not possible to arrange for an emergency programme by means of residential courses. For that would mean removing the staff from their jobs and leaving the offices without executives. What is desired is systematic gradual training, whereby the various categories could be offered appropriate correspondence courses while they still remain in their jobs and then later attend short residential courses at the College - the College being, as it were, a meeting-place for people of similar experience. They should also benefit from the lectures and take advantage of the discussion of common problems and of the exchange of ideas.

On completion of the residential course, they should be provided with some follow-up material in the form of correspondence courses, so that all the time there is a challenge ahead for them which should also open to them further opportunities for development in their various careers. This is what I referred to before as continuous training. Of course, here I do not mean that correspondence courses should be studied for ever! I know that, once one has reached the topmost position, there may be no need to study in the normal way. But all the same, the refresher courses in terms of study tours abroad and regular conferences will still form part of the continuous training.

Conclusions

The educational problems which are facing the co-operative movement in Tanzania are indeed problems of growth. Co-operation may be compared to a large coffee plantation that has good soil and water and sunshine and is thus carrying a lot of trees with healthy branches and leaves, promising a very good harvest. But, suddenly, on account of inexperience the farmer has not enough labourers to do the pruning and spraying! The landlord will certainly try to find as many labourers as he can and, if they are not enough, he will call upon his friends and neighbours to assist him, so that he may save the harvest.

The idea of co-operation in Tanzania fell on fertile soil and has therefore spread widely and grown big. Its rate of growth has been greater than the educational follow-up amongst the members, as well as amongst the employees of both the primary societies and the unions. The danger is that we may lose the harvest if the speed of education is not accelerated. The way in which I think this may be done is to revolutionize the present training system. We have to introduce an accelerator, that is, the use of correspondence instruction, on a larger scale than has so far been attempted. The members should be organized in discussion groups to study and discuss correspondence manuals and this should, as I see it, be supplemented by "one-day courses". As for the committeemen, special correspondence manuals should be produced to be studied in supervised, short, local, oral courses. Finally we come to staff-training - the field where the educational gap is largest! It is here, too, that the need for a revolutionized educational system of integrated correspondence instruction and short residential courses is greatest for both the employees in primary societies and the employees in the unions.

The feeling of the need for accelerated co-operative education in Tanzania is equally shared by both the state and the movement itself. In its White Paper No. 3, regarding further improvements to the co-operative movement, the government says: "It is agreed that the needs of the present day require a specialized information service to be carried out by CUT in conjunction with the Co-operative College and Co-operative Education Centre. It is also proposed that the employment of a permanent educational and public-relations staff by the Co-operative College and CUT respectively is desirable."

However, introducing the large-scale use of correspondence instruction is not an easy task for a young country like ours. It requires knowledge and money. For this purpose I have good reason to hope that Tanzania will before long seek for technical assistance to help solve this problem. It would certainly be wise to do so, since it would also bring us the advantages of the many years of experience of the organizations that have been using correspondence instruction in their own countries.

THE USE OF RADIO EDUCATION IN THE CO-OPERATIVE EDUCATION CENTRE

by Samuel Mshiu

With the dawn of the year 1967, the Co-operative Movement in Tanzania witnessed a new phase in the history of co-operative education, namely, the introduction of radio programmes as a media for accelerating co-operative education.

For a number of years in this vast country, where about 96 % of the country's population is made up of peasant farmers, the Co-operative Movement has handled a good percentage of the country's agricultural exports. Like most developing countries, a great many of Tanzania's farmers are illiterate. Most of these farmers are members of co-operative societies, where they sell their agricultural produce, buy their consumer goods and save their money. But a member of a co-operative society, whether literate or otherwise, ought to know how his society is run. He has to know, among many other things, how the society operates and his obligations as an active member. The need to know how a co-operative society is organised and how it works is significant, not only to those who are already members but also to the general public as a whole. The ordinary man has to know the advantages of unity and co-operation as a means of raising his standard of living and the economy of his country.

The Co-operative Education Centre

For a long time co-operative education was only directed to the employees of the existing co-operative organisations and those of the Co-operative Development Division.

No attention was paid to the committees and members of co-operatives. As the years went by, the need to educate the committees and members of co-operatives was gradually felt. This led to the establishment of the Co-operative Education Centre (C.E.C.) in Moshi in 1964. The Centre was formed with the express purpose of organising and conducting local co-operative education for staff, committees and members of co-operative organisations. The immediate task which the Centre embarked on was to publish correspondence courses in the local vernacular (i.e. Swahili) which could be used by the three groups mentioned above. The Centre was simultaneously conducting week-long courses for the staff and members of the committees in various parts of the country.

Radio education

Towards the end of 1966 the Co-operative Education Centre felt that a more intensive way of teaching was needed, especially for the members, most of whom were illiterate or near illiterate. As these were not able to make full use of the correspondence courses or any other manuals published by the C.E.C., it was felt that the best way of teaching such people would be the radio media. This media was considered useful to the illiterates and to the literates alike. It was considered to give the following advantages:

1. From an economic point of view, a lot of expense would be saved, both on the part of the Centre and the co-operatives. Whereas mobile teams would travel extensively to various parts of the country to conduct courses, the radio could serve the purpose more cheaply and more conveniently.

2. This programme would cover the whole country, regardless of the geographical position of some parts of the country where transport is a problem, particularly during the rainy season.

3. As the broadcasting time was uniform throughout the country, it would be easier to get the farmers organised and prepared for it.

4. This media could serve both the illiterates and the

literates, in that the latter could help by reading out the discussion manuals corresponding to the radio broadcast, while the former listened and later discussed the problems or questions raised in the programme.

5. Since the discussion-group method would be adopted for the listening groups, this could provide reasonable motivation for the illiterate members of the groups to learn how to read and write.

6. This scheme would cultivate among our farmers the habit of learning, discussing and finding solutions to their local problems. At the same time it would keep the farmers well informed of their co-operative societies, e.g. how their produce was handled, how to elect proper committees, how the co-operatives were run and supervised, and the rights and obligations of members.

Preparations for a radio programme

(a) The time element. When the preparations were started in December 1966, the first thing to consider was the time element. How long should each programme last? How often would each programme be broadcast? What time of the day would be most convenient for the farmers to listen to the programme? After many consultations the solution was found. Each programme would last for 15 minutes. The programme would be broadcast by the National Radio at 16.45 on Fridays and repeated at 13.45 on Saturdays. This time was accepted by most of the farmers as suitable and most convenient to them. There would be a series of programmes covering the 51 weeks of the year, starting from 6 January 1967.

(b) Experiment. A test programme was carried out at Meru, in the northern part of Tanzania, where members met in their local co-operative society, listened to the test programme and split into discussion groups and discussed the questions raised in the programme. This experiment worked out very successfully.

Manuals and dialogues

The programme was known as "Jifunze Ushirika" (Teach Yourself Co-operation). It was intended to cover all the general aspects of the Co-operative Movement in Tanzania, drawing much attention on the common problems. The first step in preparing a radio programme was to think of a number of subjects or topics. These subjects were numbered chronologically for record and identification purposes. An outline of each topic was written in essay form. These essays were written in short, clear sentences to facilitate easy reading and comprehension. Each essay formed about two pages of an ordinary A4 sheet of paper and was folded to form a manual. The manual provided a good and permanent outline of each programme broadcast. At the same time a dramatised dialogue based on the contents of the manual was written to form a radio programme broadcast. In the 1967 radio programmes it was customary to have three broadcasters in each programme. These were Bwana Ushirika, an expert on co-operation, who answered questions raised by two people, namely, Bi Halima, a female member of a co-operative society, and Mzee Masalu, a farmer, who, though not a member of a co-operative society, was eager to learn much about co-operation.

The conversation thus carried on by these three people was recorded and later broadcast through the national programmes of Radio Tanzania (Dar es Salaam). The manuals on which the broadcast was based were sent out to reach the co-operative societies in which listening groups were organised before the broadcast of the programme. During the recording of the programmes two copies of the tapes were produced. One was retained by the Centre and the other one was sent to Radio Tanzania (Dar es Salaam) for the broadcast. After the broadcast Radio Tanzania sent the tape back to the Centre.

The listening and discussion groups

Before the programme was broadcast, all members were informed of the programme through posters sent in advance by the C.E.C. to all parts of the country. These posters showed the time of the broadcast, the wavelength and how to organise the listening and discussion groups. When the time came for the broadcast, the farmers met in their local co-operative society to listen to the programme. The group would use a radio brought voluntarily by an interested member or an official of the society. After listening to the 15-minute programme, they split themselves into discussion groups, each group consisting of 6 - 15 people. Each discussion group elected its own chairman and a secretary. The chairman presided, stimulating discussion in the group, while the secretary summarized the common solutions reached after the discussion. In each group there was at least one copy of the manual relating to that day's broadcast. A literate member of the group would read out a paragraph, while others listened and then discussed. At the end of each manual there were two questions to which the discussion groups found common answers. The secretary would take down the answers agreed upon, and later, after the discussion, these answers were read out to the group for approval. After the answers were unanimously approved by the group, the secretary of the group would mail them to the C.E.C., where they were marked, commented upon and sent back to the group.

Results of the 1967 radio programmes

It is fair to conclude that the whole scheme was successful, judging from the response we had from the discussion groups and particularly the number of answers brought to the C.E.C. for correction.

By the end of the year 1967 the Centre had received, marked and returned over 4000 answers from various discussion groups.

There were, at this time, about 400 permanent discussion groups sending regular answers to the Centre. With this scheme the Centre has been able to cover the whole nation with radio education. It has been possible for the Centre to spread the concept of discussion groups - a thing that was quite unknown in this country until it was introduced by the C.E.C. two years ago. The nation is now acquainted with this method of teaching, which has also been adopted by various educational institution, e.g. the Co-operative College in Moshi.

Although the inflow of answers fluctuated from time to time, the Centre was not worried about getting many answers, as members of a group may meet and discuss the programme and manuals without necessarily sending in answers to the C.E.C. for correction.

Problems

Despite the many answers sent to the C.E.C. for correction and the discussion groups formed in various parts of the country, the 1967 radio programmes posed some problems, such as the following:

(i) Initiative. Lack of initiative among co-operative unions and co-operative societies in organising farmers into listening and discussion groups. In Mara Region, along the shores of Lake Victoria, the co-operative unions had taken such initiative and the scheme proved to be very successful. In other parts of the country, where such initiative was lacking, the results were not very encouraging.

(ii) The crop season. During the crop season, the scheme did not work out very successfully, because the members in various parts of the country were occupied on their farms and the officials of the co-operatives were busy collecting members' produce, so that they had very little time to spare for organising listening and discussion groups.

(iii) Advertisement. Although the C.E.C. endeavoured to send as many posters as possible to all corners of the country, the need for much wider advertisement was felt.

(iv) Time. Inconsistency in the times of radio broadcasting posed some thorny problems. Although the time set for the broadcast (i.e. 16.45 on Fridays and 13.45 on Saturdays) was accepted and followed in most parts of the country, we received on various occasions complaints from several groups who could not listen at the time for one reason or another.

This year the Centre had in its library copies of tapes for all the 51 radio programmes for the year 1967, together with those which had been used by Radio Tanzania and returned to the Centre. Six tape-recorders were donated by the Students Medical Association, Karolinska Institute, Stockholm, and these tape-recorders are being used by the C.E.C. tutors whenever they go out to conduct courses for members and committeemen. Listening groups are organised and several copies of the 1967 programmes are played from the tapes and discussions are carried on on the spot. This donation has been of great help in the Centre's activities in radio education.

Radio programmes for 1968

At the end of 1967 the C.E.C. had noted from the 51 radio programmes that people were now used to the discussion-group method and were prepared for the continuation of these programmes in 1968. The Centre then prepared a series of nine radio programmes based on the C.E.C.'s correspondence course on the "Duties of The Committee". This course is meant for the committees of the co-operative societies, but other interested members can join in the listening and discussion groups. A group consisting of, say, the secretary of the society, five members of the committee and four interested members orders the correspondence course from the Centre. They meet at the time of the broadcast, each with his study letters. The radio broadcasters discuss, elaborate and comment by cross-reference to each chapter of the correspondence-course unit. After the broadcast the members of the group sit down to discuss the questions at the end of the study unit. In this way we do not use any extra discussion manuals other than the correspondence course. The broadcasting time in the 1968 radio programmes has been changed to Thursdays at 16.30 and the broadcast is repeated on Saturdays at 14.30. The last programme in this series was broadcast on 2 March 1968. The same programmes will be repeated with effect from 25 May 1968. It is the intention of the Centre to have similar programmes based on the correspondence course on "How to Read a Balance Sheet".

The Centre also intends to follow up this scheme by conducting courses for group leaders, i.e. the chairmen and secretaries of the groups. The present planning at the Centre is, however, confronted with the following problems:

1. The results of the radio programmes on the "Duties of the Committee" course are not yet known.
2. Not enough potential leaders of the groups are available.

Conclusion

The introduction of radio education by the discussion-group method, though a new idea in this country, has had some successful results. Although the Co-operative Education Centre has experienced some problems in the first year of the scheme, it is felt that these problems are only temporary and may be adjusted in time.

On account of the experience gained by the C.E.C. in this scheme, it strongly recommends the use of radio education as a means of spreading adult education in Tanzania.

ADULT EDUCATION IN ETHIOPIA

by Solomon Inquai

The type and extent of adult education in Ethiopia cannot be completely understood without looking into the system of education that is prevalent at the present time. Ethiopia, which has its own language and has a good deal of literature written in that language finds itself in a slightly different situation than the rest of Africa. Yet, the fact that this written language and literature is only the language of the minority, and is thus foreign to a large segment of the population, who have a different language, is not a great advantage. Nevertheless, we have two forms of educational system, one new and the other old, operating side by side. The old system was basically religious in nature and remains so to this day. This is the school system of the Ethiopian Orthodox Church (Coptic) and the Koranic schools among the Mohammedans. The latter, working in Arabic, have perhaps contributed least, if at all, to the growth of the Ethiopian language and literature, while the former has contributed a great deal, both in the literary field and by keeping the educational torch burning through the ages.

The second system is what is nowadays known as modern, secular education. This system is less than a century old, if we consider the introduction of public education under Menelik II, or slightly older, if we consider its introduction by missionaries in their schools, which were primarily religious. Today we have public schools scattered throughout the length and breadth of the country, private schools and church and mission schools following the curriculum prescribed by the Ministry of Education. The pattern is 6-2-4-4. All instruction in the public education system is free, but not universal, because of the limitations imposed by shortage of funds, shortage of space and shortage of qualified teachers.

Adult education at its various levels, from literacy to the university level, has existed in Ethiopia for quite some time now. People from all walks of life, who have had no opportunity for education in the regular schools system or who had to discontinue their studies for sundry reasons, come to the schools, both private and public, the community centres, and the YMCA's during their spare time, mainly in the evenings, to acquire some education. Everyone seems to view education as an open door to success and well-being in life, and pursues his or her education with that goal in mind.

For practical purposes adult education in Ethiopia can be viewed at three levels, namely, literacy work, post-literacy adult education (covering the primary and secondary level) and higher adult education.

Literacy work

Ethiopia is one of the few African countries which has had its own written language over an extended period of time. Traditional education, basically religious in content, at various levels has been going on for some centuries. Modern, secular education, on the other hand, is only six decades old. Yet, with a long tradition of religious education, most Ethiopians still remain illiterate. In recent years the government and the people of Ethiopia have come to realize that, unless an all-out effort to stamp out illiteracy is made, the country cannot make any appreciable progress in any field. Consequently we may note, in the last few years, an organized public and private effort to fight against illiteracy. Such organizations as the National Literacy Campaign Organization, the Yemisratch Dimtse Literacy Campaign, the Ethiopian Women's Welfare Association, and the YMCA's, among the private groups, and the Ministry of National Community Development and Social Welfare and the Ministry of

Education, among the government agencies, are exerting a sustained effort to combat illiteracy. The efforts of these and other agencies is beginning to bear fruit. What is more, these organizations are helping a sizeable number of school-age children to get the rudiments of education or the three Rs, which otherwise they could not get for lack of adequate space in the schools. They have also contributed a great deal to the enrichment and diversification of Amharic literature for neo-literates - which has been one of the major weaknesses of literacy work in this country.

The mode of financing varies from organization to organization. Many literacy organizations depend on donations from the public and foreign organizations. In most cases teachers are volunteers rendering some kind of service, be it teaching or administration. The Government also seconds teachers and some personnel to the National Literacy Campaign Organization and the Ethiopian Women's Welfare Association. The organization, in return, renders a free service to the public, selling books, when they do so, at a nominal price, often much lower than the cost of production.

Today the literacy rate of the country is still one of the lowest in the world, less than 10 % of the entire nation being literate. Recent studies in the field have shown that the literate population is, on the whole, below the age of 30 years and that men are more literate than women. This condition is also reflected in the school-enrolment figures, where men outnumber women three to one. Furthermore the study revealed that the attainment of literacy is basically the result of contact with the public school rather than the work of literacy organizations. In contrast to the national average, literacy is higher in urbanized centres, where most schools are found, with an average of 27.7 % for the entire population, and literacy among men in the urban centres runs as high as 62 %, while among women it still remains below 20 %.

Post-literacy education of adults

Many adults who are gainfully employed often want to pursue their education, which has been discontinued for a number of reasons. Many have come to believe, as indicated earlier, that education is a way to social progress. This level of adult education could be divided into two parts - the elementary and secondary level, and higher adult education.

Adult education at the primary and secondary level

Instruction at this level is entirely in the hands of private organizations and individuals. Many run their program as a business venture, catering for as many as possible. There is no government or other institution that accredits such night schools, as they are often called. They stress the traditional schools curriculum of languages - Amharic and English, mathematics, the physical sciences, and social studies. Very few specialized schools offer evening classes in the professions, such as business education. The primary aim of most of these schools is to prepare their students for one of the two national examinations, namely, the Ethiopian Elementary School and the Secondary School Leaving Certificate examinations or to give individuals some skill which they can make use of. Students pay fees ranging from as low as Eth. $1.00 to $15.00 per month. Classes often start about 6.30 p.m. and end at 8.30 p.m. and are often held in public schools, if sponsored by teachers and students, otherwise on the premises of a private school or an institution. Every school of any consequence in the country now supports some form of night school, the limiting factor being the availability of electric power. Enrolment in such schools is rapidly growing, with the only support from the Ministry of Education being the permission to use the school facilities.

University adult education

Part-time education at university level for qualified people was available first in the various colleges that went to the making of H.S.I. University, the only national university, and later on in the University itself. Enrolment has steadily increased through the years and the number of centres where education is given has grown. Students could pursue degree, diploma and certificate programmes, through the Extension Division of the University. These degrees and diplomas are the external equivalents of what students normally gain through the full-time programme of the University. Degree programs include arts, business and law; there are diploma programmes in such subjects as accountancy, economics, political science, engineering, education, library science, law, etc. Now we are offering law education, at the diploma and certificate level, in Amharic for practising lawyers and judges and other public servants who need such training. The duration of courses varies from one and a half years to two and a half years. Students pay a fee of Eth. $6.00 per hour per semester. The programme is administered by a Dean, who is responsible to the Academic Vice-President and works in co-operation with the faculties, which are primarily responsible for the academic aspect of the programme. Formal university education is supplemented with informal education, such as public lectures and discussions.

Correspondence education

We might perhaps consider that the first effort in correspondence education was that started by Professor Ullendorff, formerly of St. Andrews University and now of London University, using the Eritrean Weekly. The Eritrean Weekly was a Tigrigna newspaper published in Asmara, Ethiopia, and Professor Ullendorff was the editor, while he was working with the British Military Mission in Eritrea from 1941 onwards. He provided the readership with well-written lessons in English via the newspapers about 1942. Many teachers and civil servants and schoolchildren followed these lessons eagerly, since many knew little English at the time of the British occupation of Eritrea.

Later on, in 1956-1958, the Ministry of Education produced correspondence courses for use by teachers, primarily as a follow-up for the in-service training, or refresher courses given during the long vacation. The courses, which were started with the aid of the American AID, concentrated primarily on the academic subjects, helping teachers to qualify in the GCE or ESLCE. The reasons for the demise of this venture are unknown.

Since then there has been little national effort to develop domestic correspondence-education schemes. But there has been a lot of talk. The Faculty Council of H.S.I. University passed a resolution as late as June 1967, asking the Extension Division to utilize the correspondence method wherever feasible. A scheme for the use of correspondence education has been worked out and presented to the academic Vice-President for final approval. Furthermore the Faculty of Education has entered into negotiations to do some in-service education by correspondence, for lessons in child psychology and the psychology of adolescence have already been developed by the faculty and are awaiting practical implementation.

However, there is a liberal provision for study by correspondence from abroad. There is no limit to the export of foreign currency for educational purposes. Thousands of Ethiopians pursue their studies by correspondence from abroad. The exact number and the exact amount of money expended cannot be worked out, because the Foreign-exchange Control Department lumps together all permits for education issued as one, and this includes permits for correspondence education, purchase of books by private and corporate bodies, and export of money for Ethiopian nationals studying abroad from relatives, organizations and the state. Yet

I was told by the Department that the amount runs into millions every year. Correspondence schools based in Great Britain are the most popular, but schools in the USA, Kenya and the UAR have enrolled a large number of students.

In recent years the Kenya-based British Tutorial College has started to dominate the scene. It has opened a branch office in Addis Ababa and enrols students both in Addis Ababa or directly in Nairobi. A heavy advertisement campaign has been launched and enrolment is growing fast. The estimated enrolment in the Addis Ababa branch is some 2500 students, distributed in the following manner; 10 % junior education courses, 30 % senior education, 35 % the GCE-level courses and 25 % professional courses. The courses advertised in the BTC Bulletin are six junior-education courses, 18 senior-education courses, 37 professional courses, etc. There are 32 internal courses, for which BTC diplomas or certificates are awarded and 16 external courses that prepare students for various examinations. If nothing else, the BTC has demonstrated that there is a great need of education by correspondence and that the time is ripe for it.

Additional education of a vocational nature is available in a number of public organizations. This is normally when an organization needs personnel with special training and skill. The Imperial Telecommunication Board, the Imperial Highways Authority, the Water Resources Department, and the Ethiopian Electric and Power Authority, among many public and private bodies, run their own vocational-training schemes for teaching specialized skills.

In conclusion, one can say that the field of adult education has made much headway without much organized leadership. The post-literary work, in primary and secondary education, for adults needs streamlining and closer supervision. Avenues must also be found for other forms of adult education that do not have to follow the pattern of in-school instruction. Above all, the field deserves much more closer attention and support from the government than it has hitherto received.

THE PLACE OF CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION IN THE KENYAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

by Joseph Arap Chumo

There has been a remarkable change of attitude towards education by the Kenya people in the last few years. If we look at Kenya as recently as the early forties, we see a society that is not very much bothered by the inadequacy of educational facilities. In fact, many parents were persuaded and even forced, by those in authority, to send their children to school. The few schools that existed, in many cases, could not always get enough pupils to fill the available places. But today, about two decades later, the position is entirely reversed. The demand for more and more education - seen as an investment in the future of both family and nation - has been irresistible. In spite of the fact that schools have more than trebled, it is today very difficult to find places for all those who are seeking education. The position now is such that there is very strong competition among pupils for the available places in schools. This decline in opportunity has created strong social and political pressures for the creation of more schools, especially for secondary-school places. The government is no longer in the original position of persuading, and in many cases, forcing people to accept education, but rather in that of trying to restrict the people from starting too many "Harambee" secondary schools. These are unaided "self-help" schools, many of which have grossly inadequate funds, buildings, staff and equipment.

In order to get a better picture of these changes, it is necessary here to consider, if only briefly, the development of education in Kenya in the last five years or since independence. Provision for seven years of primary-school education for all children was one of the priority goals of the Kenya Government on the day of independence or soon after, but needs exceeded available resources - both in money and in teachers. Nevertheless, between 1963 and 1965 the number of secondary schools in Kenya more than doubled (from 141 to 336). But only about 14 % of the primary-school leavers could expect to find places in higher schools (these include secondary schools, teacher-training colleges, and vocational or technical schools). In 1966 had a total of 5,013 primary schools with an enrolment of 1,002,121 pupils. These primary schools turn out more than 80,000 pupils annually who cannot be absorbed into the existing places for higher education. These pupils have no alternative but to join the ranks of the unemployed.

In a situation such as this, one immediately thinks of correspondence education as the solution to some of these problems. Many commercial schools and colleges saw this quite early and lost no time in exploiting the situation. Until the beginning of this year (1968), education by correspondence has been entirely in the hands of various commercial schools, most of them based in Britain, for example, the Rapid Results College and Wolsey Hall, Oxford. Some of these correspondence schools are established as subsidiaries of British concerns, for example, the British Tutorial College. This is by far the biggest of these commercial colleges. It has branches in all the main towns of the country with a central headquarters in Nairobi, which also acts as the centre for many of the branches of the College in the neighbouring countries. It is not easy to obtain reliable information regarding the work of the commercial colleges, for reasons best known to the colleges themselves. It is probable, however, that there are between 30,000 and 50,000 students from Kenya enrolled in various correspondence courses at any one time.[1] This number must certainly be higher by now.

Students are either enrolled for courses leading to external examinations or to the colleges' own certificates and diplomas. The courses, which are usually written overseas for the British market, are used with little or no alteration to suit local conditions. This is true where the courses are written at the School Certificate standard or higher, but some colleges, such as the British Tutorial College, have locally produced courses for those students who enrol in courses below the School Certificate standard. There is no supervision of any kind by the Government of the work of these colleges, although they are required by law to be registered.

Although these commercial schools are entirely private, there has been co-operation by the public, firms and Government with the schools. Many firms and Government departments have encouraged their employees to improve their educational standards through these schools and have even made arrangements with the colleges over fees. Employees have been given advances to cover fees and the college for its part makes its courses available at a discount of up to 15 % on the regular cash fee. The existence of these commercial correspondence schools has made it clear to the Government that education by correspondence is a vital educational service to be left entirely in unsupervised private hands.

In 1963 and 1964, the Kenya Government took a great in-

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1) Wolsey Hall, Oxford, one of the Colleges operating directly from Britain, claimed 405 new students for Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania in 1962-63. A recent estimate for the Kenya-based British Tutorial College gives "at least 25,000 students" as the probable number enrolled (L.O. Edström, Correspondence Instruction in Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, Malawi, Zambia and Uganda, Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, 1966).

terest in the provision of correspondence courses by a public body. As a result of an Education Commission in 1964 it was recommended that the University College, Nairobi, should consider meeting some of the evident need in this field. It therefore became necessary to carry out experiments in public correspondence instruction. The first experiment lasted from 1963 to 1966 and consisted of enrolling students for undergraduate-level courses with six U.S. universities. Students were selected from those attending short problem-centred courses at the Adult Studies Centre (then called the College of Social Studies). Students paid their own airmail-postage costs to the USA, the University College provided books, and the particicipating universities provided free tuition (arranged with the US National University Extension Association through the good offices of the Institute of International Education). This experiment was a failure. The drop-out rate reached almost 100 %.[2] This failure was no doubt due to the fact that the courses used by the students were written for American students and therefore were irrelevant to the conditions and needs of the Kenya students. It then became clear that, if any success in correspondence instruction was to be achieved, courses must be written locally with the local conditions in mind.

A second experiment was carried out in 1965 by the University College. This was an extra-mural course in economics and it integrated correspondence instruction, television and face-to-face teaching. One hundred and sixty students enrolled, half of whom were able to attend an organized class in one of the six different centres established in different parts of the country. There were TV sets in these centres and each of the 15 television programmes was followed by an hour's face-

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2) From an article by Paul Fordham, the Director of the Institute of Adult Studies (1967), on "Correspondence Instruction for Adults in Kenya".

to-face teaching. More than half the enrolled students completed their written assignments. This second experiment was a success and it showed clearly that, if correspondence instructions were well organized and run, the drop-out rate need not be so alarmingly great. In fact, teaching by correspondence can be an important technical breakthrough in the adult-education field. It can contribute a lot to the urgent educational problems at relatively low cost.

Our present Correspondence Course Unit was established in May 1967 with enthusiastic support from both Government and University. In March 1966 a team of specialists from the United States was sent to Kenya by the USAID under the direction of Chancellor Adolfson, of the University of Wisconsin. As a result of the report of this survey team, the following decisions were made:

(a) A Correspondence Course Unit would be set up within the Institute of Adult Studies of University College, Nairobi.

(b) The Unit would work in close co-operation with the Ministry of Education and would use the staff of the Ministry as course-writers/instructors for some of its work.

(c) An application would be made to the USAID for assistance with staff and equipment. Counterpart staff and funds would be provided by the Government of Kenya.

In consultation with the Ministry of Education it was decided that the Unit's priority enrolment would be as follows:

(i) Primary-school teachers taking up-grading examinations. These would, after taking the Unit's courses, sit for the Kenya Junior Secondary School Examination and, on passing, would be up-graded. Over 95 % of the primary-school teachers in Kenya are themselves the products of only a primary education, plus, in some cases, two years of basic teacher-training. If the quality of education in the primary sector is to improve, these teachers definitely need a little more than just the primary education. It is the aim of the Unit in the early years to improve the quality of the primary sector.

(ii) Pupils in no-aided "Harambee" secondary schools, who lack the services of specialist teachers.

(iii) Adults and all those who have not had the chance to join any secondary school or a teachers' college.

Following on a successful application by the Kenya Government to the USAID for assistance, three senior staff were seconded to the Unit from the University of Wisconsin. Together with five course-writers/instructors, seconded from the Ministry of Education, this group started work in June 1967. For the first six months, the work consisted of cource production and by January 1968 the courses in five subjects at Form I level were available. These are English, Kiswahili, mathematics, geography and history. In January 1969, two more courses, in general science and biology, will be introduced and there will also be Form II courses in all the seven subjects.

These radio/correspondence courses are designed to help P3 (Primary 3) teachers to prepare for the Kenya Junior Secondary Examination (K.J.S.E.). P3 teachers who earn the K.J.S.E. Certificate will be promoted to Primary 2 (P2). However, these radio/correspondence courses are not merely "cram" courses for the K.J.S.E., but are designed to cover the academic work normally covered in two full years of Form I and Form II study in school. Not every student will obtain the K.J.S.E. Certificate, but we do know for certain that those who take the courses will not be worse than when they started. In addition to correspondence-study materials, the course includes regular radio broadcast by the Voice of Kenya (V.O.K.). These broadcasts help to "pace" the student and provide additional guidance and supplementary information in each subject. The following is our present radio schedule:

Radio Time-Table Form I Courses

Time 5.00 - 5.30 p.m., V.O.K. National Service

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
5.00 English	Kiswahili	Mathematics	Geography	History (re-broadcast)
5.15 History	English (re-broadcast)	Kiswahili (re-broadcast)	Mathematics (re-broadcast)	Geography (re-broadcast)

Students will normally enrol in two or three subjects at a time. However, a student who feels that he can devote sufficient time to his studies may, with the approval of the Director of the programme, undertake four or five subjects. To earn a K.J.S.E. Certificate, a student must receive passes in five subjects. However, students in this programme will not be required to take the K.J.S.E. in all five subjects at one sitting. The Ministry of Education will permit them to sit for as few as two subjects at one time, to accumulate credit for passing these examinations, and to complete the K.J.S.E. at a later date.

The courses for one year are divided into three terms, each roughly the same as one term in a regular secondary-school classroom. Each term is then divided into twelve lessons and six written assignments. Each lesson covers about one week's work. The student is expected to spend about five or six hours on each lesson, although, of course, this will vary from student to student. This fact is, however, made known to the student, so that he can have a rough guide on which to work.

We have employed part-time markers to correct the written assignments from the students. These are qualified teachers who are teaching in the secondary schools in Nairobi. At present all these people are living in Nairobi and are therefore able to come in to our office to collect the papers. They mark the papers and return them to us within 48 hours. It is then our duty to record the marks of the student on his card and to send him his corrected assignment. In this way we are able to check on the work of our markers occasionally to see if they are doing what we expect of them. Occasionally, too, the course-writer marks some of the assignments from the students. We feel that this is a necessary practice, for it gives the course-writer an opportunity to evaluate his work and to see if the students are understanding his lessons.

The Correspondence Course Unit receives an annual grant from the Kenya Government. Additional funds have been provided by the USAID and arrangements have been made so that they will continue to support the Unit for the first four years. The students pay a minimal fee, for which they receive textbooks, writing materials, and envelopes. They have their lessons posted to them free of charge. The following table shows the fees per subject and how a student may pay.

Fees

Form I Courses, No. of subjects	If paid on enrolment, shs	If paid by instalments, shs
1	65	70
2	120	130
3	160	170
4	200	210
5	240	250

Students who wish to pay their fees by instalments may use the following plan:

No. of subjects	Payable on enrolment shs	Monthly payments
1	30	Shs 20 per month for 2 months
2	70	" 20 " " " 3 "
3	70	" 20 " " " 5 "
4	90	" 20 " " " 6 "
5	90	" 20 " " " 8 "

At present we have just over 600 students enrolled. It is possible that by early next year this number will have more than doubled, because enrolment is now open to all the three categories of students I mentioned earlier. As I said before, when we started the work, the Ministry of Education asked us to concentrate on the 12,000 P3 teachers. This is a good thing to do, since our primary aim (at least in the initial years) is to improve the primary education. However, we feel that correspondence education should be open to all those who wish to benefit from such a system of education (provided the number can be served and administered efficiently).

This, as you will have realized, is the third experiment in correspondence instruction in Kenya. One hopes that this experiment will succeed and (although it is too early to say) there are good indications that it will not only succeed but will grow to be a big institution.

We are at the moment concentrating on the first two years of the four-year secondary course. Our aim is to get out students through the K.J.S.E. But the Unit hopes to develop courses for the full four-year courses leading to the East Africa Certificate Examination (equivalent to School Certificate Examination). Furthermore, as general educational standards improve, the present relative importance of the secondary level courses is expected to decline and greater emphasis is then likely to be given to university-level work. I am now thinking of the time when the State will be in a position to provide free compulsory education, say, for the first 11 years or so. This no doubt will not happen for a long time to come. There are many other possibilities for the development of correspondence instruction in a developing country. But a beginning has been made in meeting some of the educational problems I mentioned earlier in this paper. If we can provide some education for the masses who have previously been neglected, we shall be contributing to the total national effort. Some people have argued, however, that, if you educate the masses when you have no jobs for them, you are inviting trouble. A lot could be said on this subject. It may be worthwhile to consider the following question, which I personally view as a strong argument against that kind of thinking. Is it better to have a society that has some education and no jobs, or is it better to have one that has no education and no jobs?

In any correspondence instruction, as indeed in any other kind of educational institution, there are many problems to be reckoned with. In correspondence instruction I can think of such problems as finance, course-writing, editing and testing the courses, marking the students' work, giving as adequate assistance to the student as possible, and the problem of occasionally meeting students face-to-face. These and many more are problems that require careful consideration before going in for correspondence instruction. I am glad here to add that the work of this seminar has provided many answers to many of these problems, although it has by no means provided all the answers.

EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS IN LESOTHO

by Villiers Mini Bam

Lesotho covers an area of 11,700 square miles and has a population of 1 million. Four-fifths of Lesotho is classified as the highlands and one-fifth as the lowlands. About 50 % of the land is arable. Lesotho is not economically viable and has no industries. Consequently about 165,000 Basotho are employed in the neighbouring Republic of South Africa. Eighty-five per cent of the population are dependent mainly on subsistence agriculture.

Organization of education

The majority of schools in Lesotho are provided and maintained by various missionary societies, notably the Roman Catholic Mission, the English Church Mission and the Lesotho Evangelical Church. The Government gives grants-in-aid for teachers' salaries and runs a few schools which are controlled by committees or boards of governors. The Government determines educational policy and supervises and controls the educational system through Education Officers and Inspectors of Schools. There are four Education Officers to thirty secondary schools and fifteen Inspectors to over a thousand primary schools; it is therefore not possible for each school to be visited by an Education Officer once a year.

Types of schools

1. Primary schools. The primary schools are entered at the age of six and offer a seven-year course. The course ends with a certification examination, which is controlled by the Ministry of Education. The major subjects offered are English, Sesotho

and mathematics.

2. Secondary schools. The entry age is 14 - 18 and the entrance qualification is a Standard 7 pass.

(a) Junior Secondary Schools offer a three-year course, which ends with the University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland Schools Examinations Council Junior Certificate Examination.

(b) Senior Secondary Schools offer the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate, in addition to the Junior Certificate.

3. Teacher-training colleges. The teacher-training colleges offer:

(a) The primary Lower Teachers' Certificate, a three-year course which is taken after successful completion of the Primary School Course.

(b) The Primary Higher Teachers' Certificate, a two-year course which is taken by candidates who hold the Junior Certificate.

4. Technical and vocational schools. There are two schools which train artisans whose minimum academic qualification is Standard VII. Agricultural training is given at two schools which admit applicants with a minimum qualification of Junior Certificate. It should be noted that agricultural schools are controlled by the Ministry of Agriculture and not the Ministry of Education.

5. Higher education is offered at the University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. The entrance qualification is a School Certificate "O" Level Division I or II pass, with credit in English. The University offers a four-year degree programme. In addition, it offers a Postgraduate Certificate of Education, and the Bachelor of Education and Master of Arts degrees.

Problems

1. Primary education. Primary education suffers from severe wastage, mainly because of the inadequacy of the teaching staff. For example, the 1959 to 1966 profile of the primary-

school generation shows that 40,975 pupils entered Grade A in 1959, but only 4,614 reached the end of the primary-school course in 1966. This represents an 88.27 % accumultative pupil wastage. Pupil wastage may be attributed to poor class-room accommodation, lack of equipment and overcrowding. Textbooks are inadequate in quantity and quality. Malnutrition is rife and children walk long distances to school and attendance is poor. Primary education is not free and many pupils drop out for lack of money to buy books and in some cases to pay school fees. In addition to all this, approximately 35 % of the primary-school teachers are uncertificated. Yet it is because of wastage that the educational system survives. The country cannot educate more children, because it cannot afford more schools, more class-rooms and more teachers. The country cannot afford to train and employ more and better-qualified teachers.

2. Secondary education. Similarly secondary education is wasteful and uneconomical. The profile of the secondary-school generation for the years 1962 to 1964 shows overall wastage of 45.58 %.

Selection has become a serious educational problem. Considerable numbers of pupils seek admission to a relatively small number of schools or places. There are no selection tests, and no interviews of candidates for admission. The main inducement for selection tends to be the Standard VII examination, taken at the end of the primary course and supplemented by the head teacher's reports. Consequently the secondary-school system has a low output. Secondly, approximately 36 % of the secondary-school teachers do not have university training. The bulk of the secondary-school teachers are expatriates. In the words of E.B. Castle, "The expatriate teacher meets special difficulties. His effectiveness depends as much on an understanding of the culture in which he teaches as much as his ability". Often he is thrown into a cultural situation entirely different from his own and encounters values and ways of thinking right outside his experience. Thirdly, there is a shortage of qualified mathematics and science teachers. In 1966 there were 13 qualified science teachers out of 140 secondary-school teachers. Consequently there is always a heavy record of failure in mathematics and science - these subjects are compulsory in the Junior Certificate course. Finally, the secondary-school curriculum is very academic and little or no scope is given to practical subjects. Apart from the fact that the curriculum is not geared to the needs of the country (which are mainly agricultural), does not benefit the practical students. Hence the distressingly high rate of wastage - a sign of lack of efficiency in the educational system. "One criterion of the efficiency of education is the ratio between those who enter schools and those who complete the final grade of their schools" (Prof. W. Brand).

3. Teacher education. There is an acute shortage of teachers and the University and training colleges cannot attract the most able men and women. For this reason the output of these institutions is low and sometimes poor. In 1966 the University had only one post-graduate Certificate of Education candidate, and the teacher-training colleges had only 208 students. The teaching profession offers less attractive remuneration and conditions of service than the administration. Hence most young men and women aspire to jobs in the administration and most of the teachers who remain in the service are disgruntled. Because education in Lesotho is academic, it is more consumptive and less productive. Teachers' salaries already constitute a big slice of the educational budget and if the Government were to pay the teachers the same salaries as the civil servants from the existing meagre resources, the country would probably suffer a serious financial crisis. Yet the teachers are essential to national development.

4. Vocational and technical education. Very little is offered in this field. The two artisans schools attract very

few applicants. A possible reason for this is that there are no industries in Lesotho and technical skills do not seem to offer lucrative employment. Agricultural education is compelled to absorb candidates who could not gain admission to School Certificate courses. Although agriculture constitutes the backbone of the country's economy, Basotho youth are apathetic towards agricultural training. Lesotho does not have professional farmers in the western sense. The youth in Lesotho have, therefore, not seen anyone make a handsome living from agriculture, but they do know many white-collared Basotho civil servants who earn very high salaries, and it is on this type of career that they set their eyes.

5. Higher education. The University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland was established in 1964 to serve the needs of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. Each country associated with the University is some 500 miles distant from Lesotho and from the others. The main campus of the University is in Lesotho and there are University Centres in Botswana and Swaziland. The University School of Education is deeply involved in in-service teacher-training programmes in the three countries and has a member of its staff stationed in each country. It is a special responsibility of each of these lecturers to organize short courses for teachers. In terms of travel, staff take at least one day to drive from Roma to Botswana and Swaziland. There is no air service between the three countries; the postal service between the three countries is at least an eight-day service and telephone communication between the three countries is virtually impossible; calls have to be booked and reception is often weak. Each country has representatives on the University Council and the meetings of the Council are held in each country in turn.

6. Adult education. Most of the work of community development and adult education is done by or with the assistance of

the Community Development Section of the Ministry of Local Government. The Ministry officials hold courses, conferences and seminars to sensitize the communities to their problems and to help them find ways of solving these problems. The University Extension Department co-operates in running these courses. In addition, the Department trains appointed and elected officials of Government, viz. secretaries of credit societies, community-development officers, co-operative officers, etc. The Ministry of Education, in co-operation with the University School of Education, St. Hilda's College, Durham, and the British Ministry of Overseas Development, is engaged in a training programme which aims at upgrading uncertificated primary-school teachers. Last year the Ministry of Education established the Lesotho Institute of Further Education, which operates evening classes in Maseru for adults who wish to sit for the Junior Certificate and School Certificate examinations. The urgent need of the country is to have one body to organize and co-ordinate adult-education programmes.

Conclusion

The educational problems of Lesotho are not different from the problems of countries which have recently acquired independence. Lesotho, however, is probably the poorest country in Africa - we lack the natural resources most of our sister states have. Our most vital asset, therefore, is our human resources, and we need an educational system which will produce manpower which will change our society from a subsistence society to a cash-producing society. The Government, the University, and the voluntary and international agencies are making a concerted effort to meet the challenging educational needs of the country. For example, through the good offices of UNESCO our Government has acquired the services of an educational planner. We are confident that with the sympathy and support of friendly nations we will achieve a measure of success in the not far distant future.

CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA

by John Dani Zulu

The Department of Correspondence Studies within the University of Zambia has completed only the first year of its operations. In many ways, 1967 has been a most difficult year. In the first place the political situation in Southern Rhodesia delayed the completion of the University campus. The builders were faced with a shortage of building material. Secondly, the University itself being new, much of the policy has yet to be decided upon. Nevertheless, by feeling our way and with the co-operation of the lecturing departments, we were able to get the scheme off the ground. We were fortunate in that UNESCO made the services of an expert from the University of New England available. This meant that, although it was our first year of operation, we did not have to adopt the expensive method of learning by trial and error. In broad terms, therefore, the Department of Correspondence Studies in the University of Zambia, has administratively followed the pattern of the Department of External Studies in the University of New England.

Different approaches

Although there are many different correspondence schemes, there are basically two main approaches to the organisation and administration of a university scheme of correspondence studies.

(a) An approach whereby a specialist teaching department is set up. This, I understand, is the case at the University of South Africa and the University of Queensland in Australia.

(b) An approach whereby a co-ordinating and administrative department is set up. This is the scheme the University of Zambia has adopted.

Since I am dealing with administration and organisation at the University of Zambia, I will confine myself to approach (b). We believe that this approach has a number of advantages, the most important being the maintenance of "parity of standards and adequate teaching". We believe that, by using the same lecturers who lecture to full-time students, by insisting on the same admission requirements and by subjecting the students to the same examination, the scheme dispels some of the suspicion with which an external degree is sometimes viewed by even the educated public. Moreover, since the lecturers belong to the teaching departments of the University, they know the progress of both the full-time and correspondence students. The teaching departments are responsible for both the teaching and the examining of all students. Correspondence students' lecturers are not, therefore, at the disadvantage of having to prepare correspondence students for the examinations of an outside authority.

Since correspondence teaching is simply one of the teaching commitments of the University as a whole, correspondence teaching does not become the responsibility of academic staff of a lower calibre.

As in all schemes, there are disadvantages; the obvious one being that dependence on the teaching departments means that we get lecturers who are not trained for correspondence teaching and over whom the Director of Correspondence Studies has no direct control. This is why the success of the scheme depends on the active support and participation of the heads of the teaching departments and their staffs.

The place of the Department of Correspondence Studies in the University of Zambia

Since the scheme is based on the understanding that teaching departments will be responsible for all tuition of both correspondence and internal students, the Department of Correspondence Studies has no direct teaching responsibility. The Department's duty is to co-ordinate its work with that of other departments of the University and to take care of the organisation and administration of the scheme as a whole. The staff of the Department must, therefore, work in close consultation with professors, lecturers and all heads of departments involved in correspondence teaching. Lecturing departments soon accept the need of establishing effective administrative procedures and channels of communication in a scheme of this type. It is thus the duty of the Department of Correspondence Studies to ensure that the needs of the lecturing departments and those of students are fully met. The Department assumes full administrative responsibility for correspondence students' enrolments, withdrawals, and the typing, printing, collating and despatch of lecture material. Outgoing and incoming essays and assignments are recorded in the Department of Correspondence Studies before distribution to their destinations, i.e. to lecturers for assessment or to students after assessment. In this way records are available for the lecturing staff.

The Department arranges for examination centres and weekend schools in the country's provincial centres. Arrangements for residential schools are also made by the Department. As a way of constantly keeping in touch with students and letting them feel that the University cares for them, the Director or a member of his senior staff visits all parts of the country at different times of the year, for meetings with students. Because the Department is the channel for all communications between students and the University, it has to provide an effective liaison section for both students and staff. This involves counselling and guidance services for students, as well as purely administrative services. Needless to say, in such a scheme the Department maintains close liaison with the Library, the Registrar's Department and the Bursar's Department. Moreover, the Director of Correspondence Studies is a member of the Senate and of the Part-time Studies Committee. He thus keeps in constant touch with heads of departments offering or planning to offer courses by correspondence and fully participates in Senate decisions affecting the scheme of correspondence studies.

Although, in this scheme, the Department has no direct teaching responsibility, the senior staff in the Department soon acquire a great deal of knowledge and experience in methods of correspondence teaching, and lecturing staff soon adopt the practice of consulting the Department's staff for advice and guidance on questions of teaching methods.

Staffing

As will by now be obvious, the University of Zambia is committed to the Provision of correspondence education. The success of the scheme, however, depends ultimately on the availability of staff, both administrative and teaching, and on the attitudes of this staff. During the first year of operation, the Department had to make do with only a director and a secretary. Later, the University was able to appoint a deputy director and an administrative officer. At present the staff consists of 18 people. (Subject to the necessary staff being available, we envisage that the future administrative structure will consist of the director, two assistant directors and supporting secretaries, clerks and duplicator operators.)

The question of teaching staff is vital for the success of a correspondence scheme of this type and for this reason requires careful examination. To ensure that the University's standards are maintained, it is essential that adequate teaching staff is provided. To this end, the University of Zambia has adopted the formula of appointing one lecturer for every fifty correspondence students in a particular course. Since correspondence students may take up to three courses concurrently, this represents a staff-to-student ratio of approximately 1:17.

This formula tries to avoid the risks of lecturers being overloaded and unable to give individual attention to students. It should be emphasised that lecturers are not appointed for correspondence teaching exclusively. The appointment of all academic staff is the responsibility of the University Council, which is advised by the Vice-Chancellor. Once the lecturers have been appointed and allocated to subject departments, it is the responsibility of the heads of departments to allocate lecturing loads to the lecturers. All staff appointed to the University may be required to assist in the correspondence teaching programme. Thus, although additional appointments are made in accordance with the formula mentioned above, the lecturers so appointed simply supplement the staff of the subject concerned and all staff in the subject share in both full-time and correspondence teaching.

Correspondence teaching involves careful attention to the preparation of lecture material and the correction of students' assignments. It is important, therefore, to decide on some sort of staffing policy, in order to avoid the lowering of standards by overburdening lecturing staff. The quotas are not, however, completely rigid; in fact, the system did not prevent the acceptance of all eligible students in our first year of operations, when enrolments turned out to be more than the planned quotas in some subjects.

As already mentioned elsewhere in this paper, the attitudes of heads of teaching departments and their lecturers are of paramount importance in this scheme. In 1967, for example, some heads were able to accept enrolments in excess of their quotas, while others had to be content with enrolments below their quotas in order to get the scheme off the ground. The operation of the quota system has, however, its obvious difficulties. It assumes that lecturers will continue to be available as and when we want them. When difficulties are encountered in the recruitment of staff to meet planned expansion, teaching departments will be naturally reluctant to engage in correspondence teaching. On the other hand, since staff recruitment must be planned ahead of enrolments, there is the possibility that, if enrolments do not reach the projected numbers, some departments will be over-staffed, since lecturers will have teaching loads below normal.

There are other difficulties in a scheme in which a Department of Correspondence Studies has no direct responsibility for teaching. Some lecturers will be better than others in organising and programming their courses. However, since all courses are co-ordinated through the Department of Correspondence Studies, it is possible to ensure that other lecturers gain from the example of their more experienced colleagues.

By insisting that the courses taught by correspondence must be the same in content and standard, we do come across obvious difficulties in offering laboratory subjects and other subjects, such as modern languages, by correspondence. The scheme in the University of Zambia, however, does not really rely entirely on correspondence teaching. In physics, chemistry, and geography, which we have introduced this year, we hope that correspondence students will complete the small amount of practical work during the residential schools. In physics this practical work will be supplemented by practical work at home from kits of equipment lent out to students. This year, we are also experimenting in the teaching of first-year French, using tape-recorders as well as attendance at residential schools. Given all this, it is still possible to encounter difficulties with a head who believes that his subject cannot be adequately covered by correspondence teaching. Very little can be done about this situation. After all, there are still universities which do not believe that university education can be given through correspondence.

Plans for the future

When the University first opened its doors to correspondence students, 150 students came forward to take advantage of the opportunity. Although the establishment of a Department of Correspondence Studies in the University was recommended in the Lockwood Report in 1963, the actual detailed plans and policies had and still are to be worked out. The 150 students were enrolled in three courses, UE 110 (Use of English), H 110 (History), and S 110 (Sociology), and in the courses for the Postgraduate Certificate in Education.

Thus, the choice of courses by degree students was severely limited. This limitation also meant that prospective students who had already completed equivalent courses elsewhere could not continue their studies by correspondence in the University in 1967.

This year we were able to offer 15 degree courses and the full range of courses for the Postgraduate Certificate in Education. There is a combined enrolment of 250 students. The distribution of students in courses and the actual courses offered are appended to this paper. We have no doubt that the rapidly expanding secondary-education system in the country will generate great demands for correspondence studies in the future. In any case, the size of the country and the growing but scattered nature of the population will make studies by means of correspondence a cheaper investment for the country. The Government has already become aware that, by encouraging teachers to study by correspondence, the Government receives immediate returns from its investments and to this end has made it clear that it will not release a teacher or a civil servant on a Government bursary for full-time university studies if such studies are offered at the University of Zambia by correspondence. This is important in a developing country, where the lack of institutions of higher learning has for a long time resulted in the lack of educated manpower, which in turn has resulted in the lack of schools.

The experience of the first year of operation has given us the confidence that, given the co-operation of all the teaching departments, there is no cause for pessimism. Already the School of Law has committed itself to the provision of tuition to part-time evening classes in preparation for the LL.B. degree. This will be extended to correspondence students if and when staff becomes available.

APPENDIX A

ENROLMENTS AND STUDENT STATISTICS

The following tables show the enrolments, withdrawals and statistical information concerning the 1967 intake of correspondence students. The tables have been compiled from the information sheets completed by all correspondence students who were enrolled in 1967.

ENROLMENTS, 1967

A	Qualifications for which students have registered	Total enrolment	Enrolment as at 1/11/67
	B.A.	71	46
	B.Sc.	15	10
	LL.B.	9	6
	Degree in Social Work	20	12
	(Conversion Programme Degree in Social Work)	3	1
	P.C.E.	34	29
	Total of students	152	104
B	Enrolment in degree courses		
	UE 110 (Use of English)	74	49
	H 110 (History)	78	53
	S 110 (Sociology)	58	32
	Total of degree courses	210	134
C	Total students		
	Students enrolled in 1 degree course	27	18
	Students enrolled in 2 degree courses	90	55
	Students enrolled in 3 degree courses	1	2
	Total students in degree courses	118	75
	Students enrolled in P.C.E. courses	34	29
	Total students (degree and P.C.E.)	152	104

APPENDIX B

WITHDRAWAL, 1967

The following table shows the number of students who have withdrawn from studies during the academic year. The withdrawal rate for university studies by correspondence is always much higher than for full-time studies, because of the numerous other commitments of correspondence students in full-time employment and with family and community obligations. A withdrawal rate of 3.6 % for the first year of operations compares favourably with that in comparable correspondence schemes elsewhere. The withdrawal rate for students in their first year of correspondence studies is always much higher than for students in the second and later years of study. In the first year of the scheme, the withdrawal rate has been inflated by those who enrolled without fully appreciating that the University would insist upon their fulfilling the compulsory requirements for submission of assignments and attendance at residential schools.

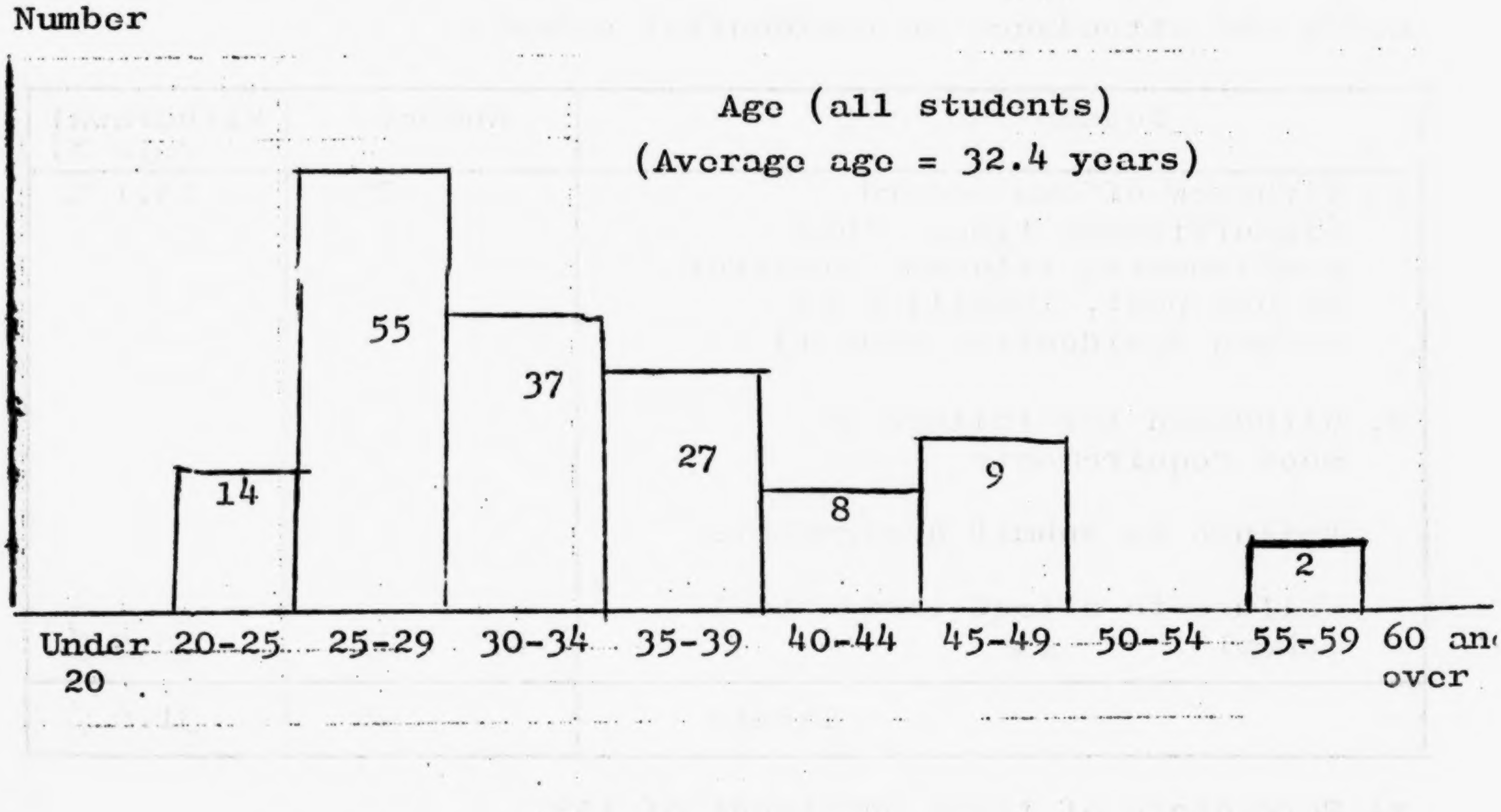
Reason	Number		Withdrawal rate x)
1. Withdrew of own accord (insufficient time, other commitments, illness, transfer to new post, inability to attend residential school)		23	15.1 %
2. Withdrawn for failure to meet requirements			
Failure to submit assignments	9		
Failure to attend residential school	16	25	16.5 %
Totals		48	31.6 %

x) Percentage of total enrolment of 152.

APPENDIX C

AGE DISTRIBUTION, 1967

Age group	Degree Candidates	P.C.E. Candidates	All Students
Under 20			
20 - 24	11	3	14
25 - 29	45	10	55
30 - 34	30	7	37
35 - 39	21	6	27
40 - 44	5	3	8
45 - 49	5	4	9
50 - 54			
55 - 59	1	1	2
60 and over			
Totals	118	34	152



APPENDIX D

SEX AND MARITAL STATUS

(All students, 1967)

Marital status	Male		Female		Total	
Single		27 (20 %)		8 (42 %)		35 (23 %)
Married						
No children	15	106 (80 %)	3	11 (58 %)	18	117 (77 %)
1 child	13		1		14	
2 children	24		4		28	
3 children	15		3		18	
4 children	10				10	
5 children	16				16	
6 children	6				7	
More than 6	7				7	
Totals	133		19		152	
% Males and females	87.5 %		12.5 %			

APPENDIX E

CITIZENSHIP, 1967

Citizenship	Degree candidates	P.C.E. Candidates
Zambian	80 (67.8 %)	-
British	17 (14.4 %)	15 (44.1 %)
Indian	-	11 (32.4 %)
Rhodesian	9 (7.6 %)	-
South African	3	3
Canadian	3	1
Malawian	3	-
Kenyan	1	-
Jamaican	1	-
German	1	-
Irish	-	2
Australian	-	1
New Zealand	-	1
Total	118	34

APPENDIX G

EXAMINATION RESULTS, 1967

The following tables provide an analysis of the examination results of correspondence students and full-time students who completed the same courses and took the same examinations in 1967. The analysis shows only the results of those students who completed the year's work and attempted the examinations in November, 1967.

I. PASS RATES

Course	Number sat	Passed November	Passed February	Total passed	Percentag passed
A. Correspondence students					
UE 110 (Use of English)	50	48	1	49	98
H 110 (History)	52	40	6	46	88
S 110 (Sociology)	31	24	3	27	87
All courses	133	112	10	122	92
B. Full-time students					
UE 110 (Use of English)	196	179	3	182	93
H 110 (History)	73	62	4	66	90
S 110 (Sociology)	51	49	-	49	96
All courses	320	290	7	297	93

APPENDIX H

II. COURSE GRADES

Passes at supplementary examinations shown as 'C'.

Course	A+	A	B+	B	C+	C	D+	D	E	Total
UE 110 (Use of English)										
Correspondence	1	1	-	11	25	11	-	1	-	50
Full-time	-	3	7	32	82	58	6	8	-	196
H 110 (History)										
Correspondence	-	1	-	8	13	24	5	1	-	52
Full-time	-	-	-	9	23	34	5	1	1	73
S 110 (Sociology)										
Correspondence	-	-	2	7	10	8	4	-	-	31
Full-time	-	-	2	5	31	11	1	1	-	51

III. PERCENTAGE WITH GRADE B OR BETTER

Course	Number sat	Number with Grade B or better	Percentage with Grade B or better
UE 110 (Use of English)			
Correspondence	50	13	26
Full-time	196	42	21
H 110 History			
Correspondence	52	9	17
Full-time	73	9	12
S 110 Sociology			
Correspondence	31	9	29
Full-time	51	7	14

THE AIMS, STRUCTURE AND PRACTICE OF THE MALAWI CORRESPONDENCE COLLEGE

by Godfrey Amos Mpheluka

The Malawi Correspondence College was opened in February 1965. The idea of starting the College dated back to 1963, when it was realised that considerable sums of money were going out of the country, being paid by thousands of local students for courses with foreign correspondence colleges, but with poor returns for their investment. The Ministry of Education wrote to UNESCO for help and advice in getting a correspondence college started. The letter was referred to New Zealand and the Vice-Principal of the New Zealand Department of Education's Correspondence School visited the country and prepared a report, in which he recommended the setting up of a correspondence college.

Aims

The aims of the Malawi Correspondence College can be summarised as follows:

(1) To provide secondary education for some thousands of young people for whom places in schools could not be found. In 1964, for example, prior to the opening of the Correspondence College, primary-school leavers numbered some 31,000 and, of these, only 2,500 were admitted to secondary schools, leaving 28,500 unable to continue with normal schooling.

(2) Correspondence education in Malawi could enable the working people to require higher educational qualifications without attending the normal schooling or without loss of income. This is important, especially in a developing country such as Malawi, where the services of qualified people are greatly needed.

(3) To reduce the high costs of correspondence education met by thousands of people who are studying through foreign colleges. It was found out that, although many people enrol with these foreign correspondence colleges and pay exorbitant fees, the outcome has always been disappointing.

Structure

The Malawi Correspondence College is part of the Ministry of Education and all the members of staff come under the jurisdiction of that Ministry. The internal organisation of the College is divided into two departments, which are controlled by officers-in-charge, who are responsible to the Principal.

The professional department

This department is concerned with the writing, the editing, the correction and the revising of the courses. At present it is divided into four divisions, each division having its own officer-in-charge, who is responsible for recruiting experienced and qualified teachers to write, revise and mark students' work. The number of teachers recruited depends mostly on the number of subjects for which each officer-in-charge is responsible. Mathematics and science courses fall into the first division, arts courses and broadcasting come second, commercial subjects and vernacular languages form the third division and lastcome teaching courses. The number of full-time academic staff, that is, those who work permanently or those who come and work at the College, is ten. The part-time academic staff, which is mostly concerned with the marking of the students' tests, acting in broadcasting programmes and teaching at night secondary schools and Correspondence College centres, number about 210.

The administrative department

The function of the Department of Administration is to provide, through an adequate and trained clerical staff, who come under an officer in charge of administration, the necessary facilities for carrying out all the work which goes hand in hand with the professional side but does not come within the professional scope of teachers. The work involved in this Department of Administration can be summarised as follows:

(1) The provision and maintenance of a complete filing system for the incoming and outgoing mail and other types of correspondence carried on by the College,

(2) The enrolment, the issue of certificates of readiness and the withdrawal of students, and the keeping of record cards up to date,

(3) The keeping of a complete system of stores and ledger accounts relating to the issue of supplies, payment of staff salaries and also the payment of equipment ordered from private firms as well as from other Government departments,

(4) The maintenance of a lending library for the students and also the maintenance of a reference library for the professional use of the teaching staff,

(5) The receipt, typing and despatch of all mail matter, including the pupils' assignments, tests and lectures, and the day-to-day general correspondence of the College.

The different types of work done by the Department of Administration necessitates the division of the department into sections:

(a) Enquiry and Registration Section. This section is responsible for the supplying of the necessary information to the students and the public. It is also responsible for the enrolment of the students and the application of the regulations concerning entrance qualifications, as contained in the enrolment forms and prospectus.

(b) Records Section. In this section is found all the information and particulars ooncerning each student enrolled by the College. As soon as a student is enrolled, a card is issued on which are shown not only the name, the address and the amount of fees paid but also the number of lectures sent to the student in each subject he is taking, and the records of tests done and the percentage of marks obtained in each test the student has forwarded for marking. The number of the student is also printed on this card.

(c) Dispatching Section. This is responsible for the dispatching of all study material required by a student. The study material includes the lectures, books to supplement the lectures (if these are not self-contained), the library books, the radio sets for radio programmes broadcast to the students of the College, and also general equipment such as chalk, blackboard dusters and envelopes to the teachers in night secondary schools and Correspondence College centres.

(d) Accounts and Stores Section. This is concerned with the receiving of fees and issue of receipts, the payment of staff salaries and equipment ordered for the College and the maintenance of a constant supply of books, printing paper and general stationery.

(e) Typing Section. This section at present consists of six copy typists and one stenographer. They are responsible for the correct typing of lectures, once they have been written by the editors, before they are sent for printing, and also the typing of day-to-day letters to the students, to the authorities and to the public.

(f) Printing Department. One officer is in charge of this department and is responsible to the officer in charge of administration. He has under him six printers, twelve pressworkers and one guillotine operator. He looks after four printing machines, one Rank Xerox photo-copier machine for making paper plates, one Eurograph Meteorite Process Camera (which has one Eurograph Processor for making metal plates), one Addressograph machine and a number of duplicators. This department is responsible for the making of plates, the printing of lectures, booklets, enrolment forms, radio programmes and test labels, and also the collation of the printed material before it goes to the Dispatching Section.

Practice

(a) Courses. The Malawi Correspondence College offers tuition in four courses:

(i) Primary Leaving Certificate. This course is open to all people who wish to complete their primary education. In order to obtain the certificate, a candidate must pass in five subjects at the same sitting. These subjects include English, general subjects (history, geography, civics), arithmetic, rural science, Nyanja or Tumbuka. The tuition fee for the full course is £4 10s cash or £5 0s 0d if paid by instalments.

(ii) Junior Certificate. This is for the people who have passed the School Leaving Certificate Examination. Correspondence students cover the same syllabus and sit the same examination as secondary-school pupils. In order to obtain a full Junior Certificate, a candidate must pass in six subjects, including English. For a full course of six subjects the tuition fee is £11 0s 0d cash or if paid by instalments, £12 0s 0d.

(iii) General Certificate of Education ("O" Level), University of London. The full course is five subjects, but a student may enter for one subject at a time and a certificate is issued by the University of London for each subject passed. The tuition fee for each subject is £5 0s 0d, but a student who enrols in five subjects pays £17 0s 0d if he pays cash or £20 0s 0d if he pays by instalments.

(iv) City and Guilds of London Institute Intermediate Certificate. At present the Malawi Correspondence College offers two subjects for this certificate - brickwork, and carpentry and joinery. These courses are for the students who have reached the Junior Certificate level and are sponsored by the Ministry of Works or the National Apprenticeship Board. This ensures that the students have had practical training in the course of their studies. The tuition fee is £3 0s 0d a subject.

(b) Correspondence College centres. These came into operation at the beginning of 1967. All the students who attend these centres belong to the College. They pay the normal Correspondence College fees and receive the appropriate benefits from the College, such as lesson material, marking services, and "Radio Classroom" programmes. On top of these benefits qualified teachers are recruited to work on a full-time basis in these centres, supervising and guiding students in their work. This supervision and guidance, in effect amounts to face-to-face teaching. The teachers work under the professional guidance and control of the Principal, but are paid by the district Education Officers. At present there are 41 College centres scattered throughout the country.

(c) Night secondary schools. A number of night secondary schools have been opened, to give external students enrolled with the Correspondence College the maximum benefit of tuition by correspondence, together with teaching at night schools. The College is responsible for the supplying of lesson material to the students and the appointment and payment of teachers, and the meeting of lighting and stationery expenses. Night secondary schools are recommended to operate for two hours per day from Monday to Friday each week.

(d) Radio broadcasts. The College prepares "Radio Classroom" programmes, which are broadcast every afternoon of the school week from Monday to Friday, starting at 4 p.m. or 4.15 p.m. Radio receiving sets are sent on loan by the College to all night secondary schools and Correspondence College centres, to enable students in these institutions to follow these programmes.

(c) Individual coaching. Each student receives a number of lectures or sets for each subject for which he is enrolled. These vary between twelve and thirty according to course and subject. Most of these sets have self-marking exercises, for which answers are printed at the end of each subsequent set. This enables students to test themselves as they follow the course and make sure that they understand the work. In addition to these self-marking exercises, there are frequent tests in the course for the students to do and send to the College. The test papers are marked by experienced teachers, who comment on the work and help with any difficulties that arise and also answer any questions the students may ask.

The total enrolment of the Malawi Correspondence College at present stands at 11,300, compared with 900 at the end of 1965. This increase of over 10,000 within a period of only three years clearly shows the important role the College is taking in the educational field of Malawi. With such a rapid increase in the enrolment of students, problems are bound to rise, especially in the administration and the printing of sets, but, owing to the great efforts of the Government and the great contributions made by various external foundations and aid agencies, the College has been able to solve some of these problems.

Annex 1

Ministry of Education

MALAWI CORRESPONDENCE COLLEGE

Enrolment Form

Write in BLOCK LETTERS your name and the address to which we should post your lectures.

[x]Mr/Mrs/Miss..

....

....

[x]Cross out the two titles that do not apply.

Home Address:______________________________________

____

Enrolment Number, if already enrolled ______________

____

Night School or Correspondence College Centre you wish to attend (if any) ______________________________

Age:__________ Occupation:____________________

Highest standard or form you have completed:__________

Underline examination (if any) you have passed: Prim.Cert. J.C.

Underline course you wish to enrol in: Prim. Cert J.C. G.C.E.

Subjects you wish to study:______________________

____

FILL IN ONE OF THE FOLLOWING (either A or B)

A. I enclose £2.0.0. as the first instalment and will send you £1.0.0. on the first day of each month until the balance of £ : : . is paid off in full.

OR

B. I enclose £ : : . in full payment of my fees.

I understand that the lectures I shall receive remain the property of the College and may not be passed on to anyone else. I undertake to return them to the College when required.

Student's Signature:____________________ Date:__________

Send your completed enrolment form together with your payment (crossed postal order or cash in a registered envelope) to:

The Principal,
Malawi Correspondence College
Private Bag, LIMBE
DO NOT SEND STAMPS OR CHEQUES

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY

Received £ : : . Receipt No. __________ Record Card Begun:_____

COURSES AND FEES

The following courses are available at the Malawi Correspondence College:

PRIMARY SCHOOL LEAVING CERTIFICATE

English
Mathematics
Nyanja or Tumbuka
Rural Science
General Subjects
(Geography, History, Civics)

You must sit and pass all subjects at the same examination.

Fees. £4.10.0. cash or £5.0.0. in instalments for the full course.

JUNIOR CERTIFICATE

English
History
Geography
Mathematics
Biology
Book-keeping
Health Science
Religious Knowledge
Nyanja or Tumbuka

Fees

Subjects	Cash	Instalments
1	£ 3.10	£ 4
2	4.10	5
3	5.10	6
4	7.10	8
5	9. 0	10
6	11. 0	12

GENERAL CERTIFICATE OF EDUCATION "O" LEVEL

(University of London)

English
Mathematics
Economics
Geography
European History
Principles of Accounts
History of British Empire and Commonwealth
Human Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene
Biology
British Constitution
Religious Knowledge
Commerce

Fees

Subjects	Cash	Instalments
1	£ 5	£ 7
2	8	10
3	11	14
4	14	17
5	17	20

TECHNICAL COURSES (City and Guilds, Intermediate)

These courses are only available for students sponsored by the Ministry of Works and/or the National Apprenticeship Board.

Brickwork
Carpentry and Joinery

Fees. £3 per subject or £4 if paid in instalments.

Student No.

Annex 2

SETS SENT - JUNIOR CERTIFICATE

ENGLISH	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
MATHS/C A	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
HISTORY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
GEOGRAPHY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
NY./TUMB.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
COMMERCE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
H. SC.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
BIOLOGY	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	8	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28

Fee Paid

1. £ : : No.- - - -	5. £ : : No.- - - -	9. £ : : No.- - - -	NOTES
2. £ : : No.- - - -	6. £ : : No.- - - -	10. £ : : No.- - - -	
3. £ : : No.- - - -	7. £ : : No.- - - -	11. £ : : No.- - - -	
4. £ : : No.--- - -	8. £ : : No.- - - -	12. £ : : No.- - - -	

Full fee for Course/Subjects Taken - £ : : .

__________(Number of Subjects Taken) Date__________ Initials__________

Annex 2 page 2

TEST RECORD

	ENG.	MATHS.	H.SC.	BIOLOGY	HIST.	GEOG.	COMMERCE	NYANJA TUMB		
	Out %	Out %	Out %	Out %	Out %	Out %	Out %	Out %	Out %	Out %
A										
B										
C										
D										
E										
F										
G										
H										
I										
J										
K										
L										
M										
N										

NOTES

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

THREE CASE STUDIES IN CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION IN AFRICA

by Roy Prosser and Lars-Olof Edström

1. An Experiment in the Development of Correspondence Education as Part of an Instructional System

The Extra-Mural Department of University College, Nairobi, wished to increase the number of students which it could reach with its programme of weekly part-time formal/liberal classes throughout Kenya. It was felt that its traditional pattern of extra-mural provision based on the classroom face-to-face teaching situation was making an insufficient numerical impact, being able to reach regularly only some 1,500 students. There were large areas of Kenya where extra-mural classes could not be held, owing partly to lack of funds, partly to shortage of part-time teaching staff, and partly to the widespread thin scatter of potential students who would be able to benefit. This situation was particularly acute in rural areas and affected, especially, teachers in primary and intermediate schools, who are often extremely isolated and appreciate the type of provision made by the Department. It was felt that a considerable impact could be made by using a system of correspondence education, making use of the widespread television service and some face-to-face instruction.

Preliminary difficulties

There were no previous patterns available which could be used as examples. There was a certain amount of scepticism concerning the value of correspondence education, scepticism which is a common feature in the British educational tradition. There were no trained or experienced staff in this method of education. There was no extra money. There was no extra administrative staff available to cover the inevitably increased administration.

Objectives

It was decided that a number of pilot experiments should be organized. These should try to demonstrate the effectiveness of this means of education to those not yet convinced; to demonstrate the seriousness of purpose of the Department, in order to attract the funds necessary for full implementation; to demonstrate the administrative requirements, technical requirements and the effectiveness of the method; to demonstrate the possible student coverage and the possible ways of student organization for the most effective use of the method.

Preliminary planning

It was decided that there should be at least three experiments. The first would concentrate on indicating solutions to problems of administration, technical difficulties and effectiveness of teaching. The second would concentrate on problems of coverage and the third on content material and subject matter. It was also decided that a vacancy on the academic staff should be filled by somebody who would devote all his attention to these experiments. A local graduate recruited to the department was sent for postgraduate training in mass media, since it was felt that, irrespective of the outcome of the experiments, the use of mass media would play an ever-increasing part in departmental work.

Experiment I

Method. One member of the staff and one secretary were assigned to the experiment. Economics was chosen as the teaching subject, partly because this is a popular subject for extramural students studying for a wide variety of public and professional examinations on a part-time basis, partly because this subject lends itself easily to effective television teaching, and partly because the Economics Department of University College had shown a willingness to help.

A visiting Professor of Economics from the USA agreed to act as a Director of Studies and co-ordinate the course-writing. Fifteen half hour TV programmes were prepared, containing 10 lectures.

Notes on the lectures, a reading list and detachable pages of programmed questions and essay assignments were combined into a correspondence booklet.

The co-operation of the Voice of Kenya TV network was enlisted and three meetings were held with the staff of the Department, the Economics Department and V.O.K. technicians. Programmes were video-taped and visual aids produced by the Extra-Mural Department. TV time was allocated on a weekly basis in the early evening, which is a convenient time for students to view TV.

Student recruitment was organised by advertisement in the press and through existing extra-mural classes. It was felt that not more than 150 students should be recruited for the purposes of the experiment. The students were categorized in three ways: those who would be organized on a group basis, viewing as a group under the leadership of a tutor, those who would register individually, view individually and correspond individually; and finally, those who might buy the booklet and follow the programme without doing the exercises. There was a registration fee of 10 shillings for individual or group students and the booklet could be bought separately for two shillings.

One hundred and sixty students were registered; half of these joined viewing groups and the other half worked individually. The groups were scattered over five centres. Four hundred other studens bought the booklet and followed the course without corresponding. A large number of schools also followed the course. At the end of the course 70 students attended a final week-end session in Nairobi, where the course was reinforced and rounded off by some of the tutors who participated.

Finance. The costs of preparation of the correspondence material, marking and publicity were borne out of the normal departmental income. No charge was made for television time. The final cost to the Department was approximately £ 150.

Experiments II and III

Following the course in economics, a TV course in law was organized, using as wide a coverage as possible. Students were encouraged to contribute assignments, but no organized correspondence course was arranged. The TV course was followed in many far corners of Kenya, demonstrating the effectiveness of the TV range. The third experiment attempted to assess the appeal of liberal subjects by this method and a course called "The Path to Prosperity", relating to Kenya's development, completed the series.

Results

The experiments were assessed as having reasonably achieved their objectives and were sufficient to attract the interest of the University and a prominent foundation. A large sum of money has been donated by the foundation, which has been used to set up a permanent Correspondence Unit.

Questions to discuss

1. How effective do you consider this method of instructional programmes is in the general African situation? What other methods might possibly be used?

2. In view of the fact that television was chosen in the

experiments, and not radio, which can capture a much wider audience, do you think this was a possible mistake?

3. Three major clearly defined roles are apparent from the experiment: academic content and presentation; technical control; administration of the correspondence element and general organization. Is this a reasonable functional division? How can they be effectively integrated to achieve smooth working?

4. At least 10 people were actively involved in the scriptwriting for 15 programmes. Do you consider this reasonable?

5. What kind of training do you consider is best suited to a person who has control of such educational methods?

6. Why do you think that correspondence education has taken so long to become "respectable" in East and Central Africa?

2. Experimental Course in Adult Education by Television and Correspondence on the Subject of Good Letter-writing

It was felt that, since there was something like 70 % television coverage in Uganda, an effort should be made to use this medium to help extend the educational programme of the Department throughout Uganda. It was decided that the integration of television with correspondence instruction would be the most effective way of doing this. The Department had had no previous experience of these methods and there were no extra funds or extra staff available, so the first experiment was intended to be a small one. The objectives set were to find out some of the difficulties, both in presenting programmes and in administering the correspondence section of the course.

Planning

Since the programmes were to be televised publicly at a peak viewing time, the Department felt an obligation to choose a subject which would have general interest. "Good Letter-writing" was finally selected.

It was agreed that there would be ten programmes to complete the course and preliminary details were discussed with the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, the Television Manager and the Head of the Educational Television Service. Further details were worked out with the assigned producer and the presenters.

Method

A booklet was produced which gave a résumé of each individual television programme with a number of detachable pages of questions for students to answer and submit to the Department. An enrolment fee of five shillings was charged, which covered the cost of the booklet and postage to the student. The programmes were prepared and presented by members of the Department, who also marked the assignments. Programmes were transmitted live.

It was decided to limit student enrolment to one hundred. Publicity was carried on by television, radio, press, posters and extra-mural classes. Questionnaires were sent to students on enrolment to ascertain personal details and a questionnaire was sent at the end of the course to provide a general assessment of achievement and an opportunity to evaluate student reaction.

Implementation

An unexpected difficulty was encountered with student recruitment. In spite of the wide publicity, only two students had registered (just before the course commenced) and personal visits by departmental staff had to be made to some district centres to obtain the support of local people to arrange viewing groups and to take part in the correspondence course. It has been suggested that possible reasons for lack of response may have been insufficiently persuasive publicity, the five-shilling enrolment fee, the subject material, and the general lack of appreciation of the mass media as an educative force.

In the event, 71 students bought the booklet and enrolled. Of these, 45 sent in exercises and 21 completed the course. It was considered that possible reasons for the low number completing the course may have included the cost of postage being too high and delays in the postal service may have caused some students to lose interest.

Of the students who registered, the greatest number were primary- and junior-secondary-school teachers.

Other difficulties and problems which arose included the final choice of a title for the course, a change of broadcasting time from 7 p.m. to 8.30 p.m. (this seemed to be serious, since students appeared to be less willing to join their viewing groups at this later time), and a shortage of television cameras.

The results of those who completed the correspondence course did not generally show any dramatic improvement. Certain basic facts about letter-writing, however, were obviously learnt by most people. Apart from the corresponding students, it is not possible to calculate how many people learnt something from the course, although a large number of people mentioned that they had "picked up" a lot from the course and the response was generally enthusiastic.

Questions to discuss

1. Do you consider that the selection of a course on good letter-writing was a suitable one for an experiment of this kind?

2. How would you account for the initial lack of interest in the course?

3. How would you assess the efficiency of the postal services in your own country if you were intending to develop correspondence education?

4. How would you rate the ability of potential adult students to pay for correspondence courses in Africa? For which categories of the population would a fee of five shillings plus

postage be really prohibitive?

5. What general comments would you make about the implementation of experiments in instructional systems of education?

6. How valuable do you consider is the use of grouped student organization in correspondence education?

7. Why do you think correspondence methods alone were not used in either of the case studies presented?

3. Student Selection Procedures

1. Soon after independence an African state decided to establish a correspondence-course organization. The country's chief educational problem was an extreeme shortage of secondary-school teachers and buildings, which made it difficult to expand the educational facilities on this level without introducing correspondence instruction. Therefore the first task of the correspondence school set up under the Ministry of Education was to run a pilot project on the secondary school.

Office accommodation and staff were provided for the correspondence organization in the capital, and course-writers were engaged. After some time of preparation the correspondence school was ready to fix a date when operations could begin. The question of student selection thus became acute. There was no doubt that the potential student population for the correspondence school was great; thousands of primary-school leavers clamoured for secondary education every year. Student selection thus did not seem to offer any serious problems and had hitherto not been discussed in much detail. As the first years were to be spent on a pilot project, the number of students should obviously be limited. A number of 300 was arbitrarily agreed upon. The students were to be paced, and student intakes restricted to one period a year.

Through press, radio and official channels it was announced that the correspondence school was ready to take in its first students for the J.C.E. and could now accept applications.

Two months before instruction was to commence, 1597 applications had been received, in the form of letters and requests for a prospectus. A formal application form was prepared to send to the interested wouldbe students, together with the prospectus. By the closing date for application, 608 application forms had been submitted for consideration. From these only 150 could be chosen. There was no time to consult provincial records for examination results at primary levels through past years. How then could the correspondence school hope to select on any reasonable basis? Difficulties were manifest. It was at least possible to use the completed application form as a guide to literacy and relevance on the part of the student. The form had included a short composition (on "The Advantages and Disadvantages of Correspondence Education"). It was thought that this composition would indicate academic levels. However, a number of compositions, and even forms, had to be disregarded, because of obvious assistance from unknown persons. The most effective use made of the form contents was in weeding out poor performances rather than in assessing the relative merits of those considered of sufficiently high academic calibre. It was most convenient that after an analysis of these applications many unsuitable applicants could be immediately rejected. The final problem was to apply a technique which would separate out 150 and also provide a reserve of 15. This was achieved by a points system involving the following factors: age, accessibility to the postal services, provision of reliable testimonials, and nature of employment. The distribution of those selected was as follows:

I. Distribution of students by employment

Clerks	22	Shop assistants	5
Technicians	28	Miscellaneous	17
Police	5	Unemployed, mainly aged 15-18 years, including married females	41
Teacher	19		
Mining	2		
Orderlies and guards	11		

II. Distribution of students by age

31-27 years	15
26-30 years	26
21-25 years	54
15-20 years	55

III. Distribution of students by sex

Males	140
Females	10

Those selected lived in areas with reasonably good postal facilities and had at least a fair result in the composition test.

2. It became clear during selection for the next year's intake that much more research was required if the best applicants were to be obtained. At the time of selection the country's secondary schools had already made their own selection of students. Clearly therefore, the correspondence school only had available whatever applicants had not been accepted by these schools, evening classes and commercial correspondence colleges. Four hundred and one enrolment forms were completed and returned, from which 100 students were offered enrolment and 50 placed on the reserve list. When selection for this intake was being planned, the time factor was not so critical, and it was possible to refer to the examination records of the applicants. Nevertheless this was not easy, since it involved provincial files as far back as 1945. It was moreover not certain to what extent the validity of such records could be relied upon. The type of composition included in the second application form was also changed to the following:

Here are six words:

WALKED POLICEMAN RAN
THIEF CLOTHES TRAIN

It appeared that much less temptation existed for deception by applicants than in the previous composition.

One important aspect of these selection procedures was that the correspondence school was most concerned to offer its limited resources to the students with the highest abilities. Another important aspect in selection was that effective selection was ultimately decided by the ability of the students to pay fees. This often resulted in difficulties, even for those students who were fortunate enough to be selected and had promised to provide fees.

3. In another African country a correspondence college was set up by the Ministry of Education for the same reasons and for the same category of students as in the country just discussed. There, however, no upper limit was set for the intake of students during the first years. Nor was the intake limited to certain periods. Students could send in application forms at any time of the year.

In this country the student's previous school record was summarily checked, but no special selection procedures were decided upon, as regarded application. Instead, students who were formally qualified were accepted, and, upon payment of the first part of their fee, were sent material. The student's ability to pay fees was therefore de facto recognized as one of the most important qualifying factors. One consequence of this was, however, that many students paid part of their fees only to become drop-outs. Some were even anxious to enrol and pay their fee without commencing their studies - an unexpected development.

Questions to discuss

1. Is student selection necessary and/or desirable in Africa?

2. Would an intake spread over the year have been feasible or desirable in country 1? What would the consequences be?

3. What are your views on the selection procedures and

criteria used in country 1?

4. How can deception be avoided in selection?

5. You have been asked to look into student-intake procedures in your country. What procedures would you recommend and why? (Outline, for instance, very briefly the contents and purpose of application forms, if and how you would select students, etc.)

Participants in the 1967 Dag Hammarskjöld Seminar on "The Use of Correspondence Instruction in Adult Education. Means, Methods and Possibilities", Uppsala, 14 April to 19 May, 1967

Mr Ahmed Abd AL-HALIM
Director
School of Extra-Mural Studies
University of Khartoum
P.O. Box 321
KHARTOUM SUDAN

Mr Fassil ASFAW
Education Officer
University Extension Dept
Haile Selassie I University
P.O. Box 1176
ADDIS ABABA ETHIOPIA

Mr Ronald F CLARKE
Acting Director
Dept of Extra-Mural Studies
Makerere University College
P.O. Box 262
KAMPALA UGANDA

Mr Taye DEMISSEW
Supervisor
Literacy and Adult Education Dept
Ministry of Education
P.O. Box 1367
ADDIS ABABA ETHIOPIA

Mr Abebe GHEDAI
Assistant Dean of Extension
Director of Asmara Extension
University Extension Dept
Haile Selassie I University
P.O. Box 1176
ADDIS ABABA ETHIOPIA

Mr Gabriel E KAGARUKI
Joint Director
Co-operative Education Centre
P.O. Box 788
MOSHI TANZANIA

Mr Joseph John KARANJA
Head
Dept of Community Development Training
Kenya Institute of Administration
P.O. Box 2303
LOWER KABETE KENYA

Mr Martin M KAUNDA
Assistant Director
Dept of Correspondence Studies
University of Zambia
P.O. Box 2379
LUSAKA ZAMBIA

Mr Peter Erastus KINYANJUI
Staff Tutor
Institute of Adult Studies
University College
P.O. Box 30197
NAIROBI KENYA

Mr Basil Paul KIWANUKA
Chief Inspector of Schools
Senior Education Officer
Ministry of Education
P.O. Box 3568
KAMPALA UGANDA

Mr Nicholas A KUHANGA
Member of Parliament, Organiser
Institute of Adult Education
University College
P.O. Box 9184
DAR ES SALAAM TANZANIA

Mr Picton Vernett MBATHA
Tutor, Acting Deputy Director
Institute of Adult Studies
Adult Studies Centre
P.O. Box 92
KIKUYU KENYA

Mr E M J MULUNDIKA
Adult Education Officer
Ministry of Education
P.O. Box RW 93
LUSAKA ZAMBIA

Mr Gwayambade Ernest MUTESASIRA
Education Officer
Ministry of Education
P.O. Box 263
KAMPALA UGANDA

Mr Richard Yoram MWAKATOBE
Senior Tutor
Co-operative Education Centre
P.O. Box 788
MOSHI TANZANIA

Mr Daudi N MWAKAWAGO
Tutor
Kivukoni College
P.O. Box 9193
DAR ES SALAAM   TANZANIA

Mr Oliver N OB'BAYI
Institute of Adult Studies
University College
P.O. Box 30197
NAIROBI   KENYA

Mr John OKACH
Tutor
University College, Nairobi, Kenya
11 Buccleuch Place
EDINBURGH 8   SCOTLAND

Dr Abdelmonem H SHAWKY
UN Regional Social Welfare Training Adviser
UN Economic Commission for Africa
P.O. Box 3001
Africa Hall
ADDIS ABABA   ETHIOPIA

Mr Nathan Kayumba SIMUNIMENEE
Correspondence Course Unit
Private Bag 20
Ministry of Education
LUANSHYA   ZAMBIA

Mr Ahmed El Zein SOGHAYROON
Tutor
School of Extra-Mural Studies
University of Khartoum
P.O. Box 321
KHARTOUM   SUDAN

Participants in the 1968 Dag Hammarskjöld Seminar on "The Use of Correspondence Instruction in Adult Education. Means, Methods and Possibilities", Uppsala, Sweden, 3 May to 7 June, 1968

Mr Julius Akinola AGBI
Extra-Mural Organizer
Department of Adult Education
University of Ibadan
Private Mail Bag 1037
BENIN CITY NIGERIA

Mr Villiers Mini BAM
Lecturer
School of Education
University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland
ROMA LESOTHO

Mr Maâche CHELIHI
Inspector of Schools
Inspection académique
BATNA (Aurès) ALGERIA

Mr Joseph Kiprotich Arap CHUMO
Course Writer
Institute of Adult Studies
University College
Box 30197
NAIROBI KENYA

Mr Emmanuel Aidoo HAIZEL
Senior Resident Tutor
University of Ghana
P.O. Box 31
LEGON GHANA

Mr Gamal Elhibir IDRIS
Senior Adult Education Officer
Sudan Gezira Board, Barakat, Musaad
MUSAAD SUDAN

Dr Solomon INQUAI
Dean of University Extension
and Director of Ethiopian University Service
Haile Selassie I University
P.O. Box 1176
ADDIS ABABA ETHIOPIA

Mr Antoine KABWASA
Assistant Programme Officer
Manpower and Training Section
UN Economic Commission for Africa
P.O. Box 3005
ADDIS ABABA ETHIOPIA

Mr Mohamed Abdurahman KORRAH
Head of the Dept of Education in Teacher Training Institute
Ministry of Education and Fine Arts
P.O. Box 1166
ADDIS ABABA ETHIOPIA

Mr Daniel Musisi KYANDA
Deputy Headmaster
Lubiri Secondary School
P.O. Box 4148
KAMPALA UGANDA

Mr David MACHARIA
Extra-Mural Tutor
Institute of Adult Studies
University College, Nairobi
P.O. Box 30197
NAIROBI KENYA

Mr Eric Adzetey MENSAH
Principal Organizer
Institute of Adult Education
University of Ghana
P.O. Box 31
LEGON GHANA

Mr Godfrey Amos MPHELUKA
Principal
Malawi Correspondence College
Private Bag
LIMBE MALAWI

Mr Samuel Parmenas Philemon MSHIU
Co-operative Tutor
Co-operative Education Centre
P.O. Box 3091
MOSHI TANZANIA

Mr Aloys Paul NG'ASI
Assistant Tutor in Communications
Kivukoni College
P.O. Box 9193
DAR ES SALAAM TANZANIA

Mr Daniel Agboola OLOGUNDE
Lecturer
Department of Adult Education
University of Ibadan
IBADAN NIGERIA

Mr Joe OPARE-ABETIA
Resident Tutor, Institute of Adult Education,
Principal, Sekondi/Takoradi Workers' College
P.O. Box 219
TAKORADI GHANA

Miss Khatun REMTULLA
Assistant Resident Tutor
Institute of Adult Education
University College
P.O. Box 9184
DAR ES SALAAM TANZANIA

Mr Joseph RUTASHOBYA
Assistant Commissioner for Rural Development
P.O. Box 2248
DAR ES SALAAM TANZANIA

Mr Ibrahim SARI
Course Writer
56 Swidani Boudjemaâ-"Colon Voirol"
ALGIERS ALGERIA

Mr Michael Kitudewa SOZI
Director
Centre for Continuing Education
Makerere University College
P.O. Box 7062
KAMPALA UGANDA

Mr Abdelwahid Abdalla YOUSIF
Lecturer
School of Extra-Mural Studies
University of Khartoum
KHARTOUM SUDAN

Mr John Dani ZULU
Administrative Officer
Department of Correspondence Studies
University of Zambia
P.O. Box 2379
LUSAKA ZAMBIA

ERIC Clearinghouse
FEB 4 1970
on Adult Education